

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

THE JOURNAL *of the* American
Association *of* Collegiate Registrars
and Admissions Officers



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The Small College and the Big Crisis

KENNETH OLIVER

THE TERM "crisis in American education" has been heard so often in recent years that what should be the focal word of the phrase has virtually lost its meaning. Crisis, by its very nature, can scarcely continue over a period of years. Whether the term "crisis" is appropriate or not, education as a field of individual, national, and cultural activity has had, has, and will continue to have its problems. In the future, as in past years, theorists will continue to think and write about educational problems individually and in large sweeps approaching total synthesis. Short articles and long books regularly appear, and will continue to do so, representing the best thought of carefully trained minds. Experiments will be made and reported on, and will exercise influence, small or great, in the endless process of change that we call progress. It is the purpose of this short paper to report on one experiment that represents the effort of seven small colleges to meet "the crisis in American education."

The particular crisis which the colleges in question undertook to meet was the one which concerns the training of teachers for the college classroom. They were not particularly endowed with foresight, but they did recognize that a wave of children was moving upward through the schools, and that these would eventually require teachers

in college—more than were currently being trained. The seven colleges did not expect to furnish the differential themselves; but they also did not believe that the large universities could do it without seriously weakening their programs of training. Graduate teaching, to be effective, demands both small classes and a proportionately large amount of time in individual discussion between professor and student. It would clearly not do simply to double the sizes of the existing graduate classes in all or most of the existing doctoral programs over the country. But could a small liberal arts college, with a fraction of the staff per department, add doctoral training to its already maximum teaching loads and do the job that universities do in training scholars? When this question was asked of representatives of the colleges, the answer was: "No, we cannot do precisely what the big universities do. But we can train teachers for the small liberal arts college, and do it well, if—and it is a big if—IF we can draw upon the faculties of *several* small colleges of top quality and co-operatively develop a *single* advanced graduate program. We know as well as any large university can what it takes to make a good teacher in the private liberal arts college."

But was it worth the effort to make such an attempt? Graduate education costs money. Virtually no private college pays all of its undergraduate costs out of tuition, and in successful graduate training there are fewer students per class, while the average salary of the staff would inevitably be higher, since the upper ranks would be used almost exclusively in such a program. No, the cost would be too great—unless some considerable support could be found. Even then, what good would it do? One such small program would furnish only a minute handful of college teachers, while the nation needed a steadily growing system of training, an increase more on the order of fifty per cent in ten years than of the eight or ten or twelve teachers a year that such a program could expect to produce after it got going. Once again, the natural tendency to give a negative answer and drop the project was met with a more hopeful response: if one group of colleges in an urban area could successfully establish a doctoral program, then others could also do it. The small-college contribution to Ph.D. education would never be proportionately large, but, in a nation with desperate need for every teacher who could be trained to high competence, the small colleges could make a significant contribution.

The "beginning" of the program covered any period of time one

might wish to suggest, from the first meeting of a group of professors with their college president to discuss advanced graduate work, to the five years it took to bring forth the first successful candidate for the degree. There was drama enough in those first few years, as the traditional rivalries of the seven colleges began (not easily) to give way to co-operative planning, and as professors, librarians, deans, and presidents worked in committees, each trying to give shape and philosophy to the enterprise as a whole. What departments should be involved, and in what areas should advanced degrees be developed? What controls should be set up to insure adequacy in the training, and who should exercise those controls? How should the finances be managed, and who should be given the responsibility for expenditures of various sorts? At what colleges and in what departments should new staff be added? How should registration and credits be handled for students who enrolled in courses at two or more of the colleges?

Of the many more problems, one should be added here: what would be the effect upon the traditional undergraduate nature of the colleges if this new graduate endeavor were undertaken? There were many in every one of the seven schools who feared an adverse effect, as indeed there were a considerable number who doubted the sanity of the whole undertaking. But a minority with solid convictions and with substantial ideas—and with the support of their administrative superiors—can and often do succeed over the objections of those who fear the worst. The "Intercollegiate Program of Graduate Studies"—IPGS—gained the financial support of The Fund for the Advancement of Education, and has grown into a co-operative venture in doctoral training for college teachers that may now be said to be solidly established. It has a past, and now there are few who doubt that it has a future.

The seven co-operating institutions include four of the Associated Colleges at Claremont: Pomona College, a school of about a thousand students, Scripps College for Women and Claremont Men's College, each with an enrollment of about two hundred and fifty, and the graduate center for the Associated Colleges, Claremont Graduate School; Occidental College in Los Angeles, which has an enrollment of about fourteen hundred; the University of Redlands, with twelve hundred; and Whittier College, with about a thousand. Doctoral studies are offered in five fields, and each institution grants the degree earned by its own students, with recommendation for the degree com-

ing from the Educational Council of the co-operative program. Comparative literature is offered by Occidental College and by the University of Redlands; English, economics, government, and history are offered through the colleges at Claremont. Whittier at present offers no degree beyond the M.A., but contributes staff to the seminars and is represented in the Council.

While the educational philosophy of the graduate program took countless man-hours to evolve, it is relatively simple and easily stated. The aim is to produce scholar-teachers (not specialist-researchers). This requires specialization in the chosen field, but it also demands that that specialization be mainly centered upon subject matters and methods applicable to the college classroom. Concentration upon previously unexplored authors and movements is recognized only when its relationship to practical teaching can be established. Scholarly breadth and perspective are considered to be of high importance; it is felt that the boundaries of the various disciplines are somewhat arbitrary in nature and that the good teacher should be able to see beyond his own little domain to the contingent areas of learning. For this reason, although no doctoral degrees are awarded in philosophy, and although many of the students concentrate in areas other than history, it has been decided that every student should work through two years in intersubject seminars whose staffs include representatives of these fields. In practice, also, all students have participated in some advanced analysis of literature. A typical intersubject seminar may study, for instance, the sixteenth century in Europe, under a historian, a philosopher, and an expert in European literature. One purpose of such a seminar is to examine the achievements of the age and the texture of life, both intellectual and social, in that period; the second purpose is for the student to become familiar with the various centers of interest of the different disciplines, and to see how these interests overlap and enrich one another.

The educational philosophy may be said, then, to be based upon a concept of scholarship with breadth, or, as one of the early brochures of the program put it, "a room with a view." It was also felt that practical experience in the classroom should precede a degree which proclaimed one a competent teacher, and for this reason each graduate student, before the completion of his studies, has been expected to teach for at least one semester under the close guidance and watchful eye of a senior professor. The students are paid for the teaching, but it is also an integral part of their preparation.

Ordinarily it is only two things that will attract students to a graduate program: the reputation of the institution, and money. The IPGS (Intercollegiate Program of Graduate Studies), thanks to The Fund for the Advancement of Education, had some attractive scholarships and fellowships to offer. But it had no reputation. And it had, therefore, to choose between granting easy degrees to second-rate candidates, or holding to high standards and accepting the inevitability of a slow start. It chose the latter course, and the rate of attrition during the first two or three years was almost one hundred per cent. The suicide of a young man who foresaw probable failure did not help matters. But a few of the best students held on, challenged by the program's insistence upon both breadth and depth, or endowed with the pioneer spirit, or both.

But the program was indeed "intercollegiate," and that introduced problems. The Educational Council asked that students enrolled in any one of the participating colleges be accepted without question by any of them, and that admittance to classes be managed with minimum red tape. Most of the colleges granted this request freely; but the registrars were not completely happy with such an arrangement. They were supposed to have full records upon each student enrolled at their college, and a grade for a single course with a notation that the student was in residence at another college did not seem adequate. Further, students might (and sometimes did) move from one to another of the colleges for a full year of study, and this certainly required full admission procedures. The Educational Council, blithely unconcerned with such formalities, and having accepted the principle of equal status in all schools after acceptance in one, gave assurances to students which registrars were not willing to honor. But this, too, was solved, with the filing of photostat copies of admittance papers at the second college, or any other than the first, for those who changed residence for a semester or year. And financial agreements were made which allowed the student to make only one payment of tuition in any one semester.

One further problem, and a large one, remained. The Fund for the Advancement of Education was not willing to subsidize this venture forever. Its aim was to get new and worthwhile programs started, and it expected them to prove themselves to the extent that other support could be found for them. The presidents of the participating colleges took the first step, as they agreed to assume the cost of the added staff that was necessary to the program. The Haynes Foundation next made

a grant of six generous fellowships for the social science candidates in the Intercollegiate Program. And just at the moment when still further support had to be found or some retrenchment made, the National Defense Education Act was passed, and fourteen fellowships were allocated to IPGS, divided equitably among the various fields. Within the program, financial management has come to rest with an executive secretary, who is subject, in large matters, to the Educational Council.

By now five candidates have received their doctoral degrees, three in Comparative Literature: one from Occidental College, and two from the University of Redlands; and two in English, from Claremont Graduate School. All have been placed. One is already an associate professor at one of the top ranking small colleges of the Pacific Northwest; another was hired as an assistant professor by one of the state colleges in the Southwest; a third has accepted an attractive position at one of the good small colleges in the Midwest. At the end of this year there should be at least six more doctoral degrees granted, and perhaps as many as ten, among the various schools and fields.

The largest question, in terms of policy, was what the effect of such a venture in advanced graduate work would be on the traditional undergraduate emphasis of the colleges. Certainly many (in nonparticipating departments) who in the beginning expressed their doubts would still shake their heads and say that it was all a mistake. Graduate work requires more teacher hours per student, and this leaves fewer for the undergraduates, or fewer for the reading, meditation, and general preparation on the part of the professor; sheer mathematical logic leaves no alternative to the conclusion that undergraduate training suffers whenever and wherever graduate study is increased. Yet there are counterbalancing factors which operate just as forcefully. Among the participating colleges it is an accepted principle that no staff members shall work exclusively at the graduate level. The addition of staff means, therefore, that undergraduates have a wider range of professors to draw from, with the greater competence in some areas of study which these represent. Also, a large proportion of the staffs teach at least one graduate seminar from time to time. This work with advanced students serves as a stimulus to keep the professors reading and thinking beyond what would be necessary if they were working exclusively with undergraduates. This stimulus has been recognized by all of those who participate in the Intercol-

legiate Program. And still further, the upper level of the undergraduate students find themselves occasionally in classes with the graduates, and are given an added impulse to do their best work. There are many, among the professorial staffs of the seven colleges, who would testify to the increased intellectual vitality which the program has stimulated. In weighing the effect upon undergraduate education this cannot be ignored.

The "crisis" in American education has not been passed. There will continue to be a shortage of well prepared college teachers; financial problems will continue to harass schools at all levels; traditional values and experimental movements will continue to clash. But the southern California "Intercollegiate Program of Graduate Studies" has, in its small way, indicated several things: small, private liberal arts colleges can make some small but valuable contribution to the training of college teachers; they can, with persistence and the good luck that often seems to follow persistent effort, find financial support to cover at least a significant part of the cost; where the distances are manageable, they can co-operate to do together what they could not do separately.

Since the initiation of this particular venture in graduate studies, representatives of several other groups of colleges have made inquiry or sent committees to study the co-operative program. Some have indicated that plans are under way which may lead to similar undertakings. This was the hope of those who established the southern California Intercollegiate Program, and of The Fund for the Advancement of Education, which gave it its original support. For it remains as true today as it was ten years ago, that our large universities cannot supply the American market for well trained college and university teachers.

Blessed Is the Nonconformist

MARGUERITE HALL ALBJERG

THOU SHALT ADJUST" has been accepted as the eleventh commandment by many Americans. However, it might be more advisable if instead there had been added a tenth beatitude, namely, "Blessed is the nonconformist for he is the gadfly of civilization."

Sir George Barnes recently observed that the quality of conformity had made the American people into a nation while their propensity for nonconformity had given them the power to resist manipulation. However, many thoughtful people fear that undue emphasis here is being placed upon conformity. Often a person's ready submission to a group or a majority is applauded as commendable "adjustment" even though such an action may be the unthinking response of an overzealous conformer. Yet American history was inaugurated by nonconformists who subsequently became rebels and whose descendants subdued a continent through their pioneering efforts.

Co-operation should not be disparaged, but "doing things together" can become an enervating tradition unless individuals are incited also to think and act as independent personalities. Unity is necessary to provide a workable society. Dissent is imperative as a safeguard to society's freedom and as an incentive to its discovery of truth.

There is no generalized unit trait such as conforming or dissenting, since a man is often an independent individual in one group and an acquiescent follower in another. However, the extraordinary mass production in this country which has been possible only through vast standardization, has resulted in a powerful impetus towards producing "mass minds" as well. Likewise, mass communications have facilitated the uniformity of minds. Hence, conforming has become the approved habit; dissenting, the unpopular practice. The psychologist Rollo May has warned that the pressure toward conformity is the most obvious cause for the loss of personal integrity.

Enforced conformity also gravely endangers freedom, and when freedom is restricted, progress falters. The creative neurotic, the inquiring skeptic, the adventurous explorer are all potential foes of the *status quo*. Usually they are condemned before they are immortalized yet without their continual efforts, freedom would languish and progress would cease.

It is true that one can be a kind of conforming nonconformist

merely by slavishly developing unconventional conduct and ideas. As Harold Taylor puts it, "Deliberately to cultivate nonconformity is to act falsely and hypocritically. . . . The break with conformity which I propose . . . is to tackle the thing which matters most to oneself, and refusing to be deflected from that enterprise either by the attractions of material success or by disapproval of the public. This is the philosophy of risk, a philosophy of experiment, and of true individualism."¹ If a nation moves forward, there must be among its people both co-operation that is not forced and dissent that is not condemned.

In the areas of government and of education, there are significant forces promoting conformity and also penalizing the nonconformer. With Jacksonian democracy came manhood suffrage together with equal rights to choose one's representatives and to hold office but without the capacity always to choose wisely or competently. By emphasizing the tenet of equality, often a dogma was made of the principle of mediocrity. Consequently, excellence has seemed less important and often this has affected adversely the climate of government.

The comfortable congeniality of the group, whether it be a labor union or a board of directors, seems to determine increasingly its members' political opinions. This "progressive dwindling of the self as an authentic center of decision and action" imperils the whole fabric of the democratic process. Learning from others is a commendable procedure; going along with the undigested observations of the group is a threat to individuality and thereby a danger to democracy.

Participation in political gatherings where major issues are discussed has given way frequently to the viewing of a political meeting on television. After the listener's favorite commentator has summarized for him the gathering's discussion, it then seems unnecessary to the viewer to read with discrimination and to reflect with concentration.

Democracy is predicated on the theory that the people will choose leaders wisely, discharge civic responsibilities honestly, and help democracy function effectively. If these assumptions prove false, "what dictators can do to society, consciously, democracy can do to itself unwittingly."

¹ Harold Taylor, "The Intellectual in Action," *Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists*, 14: 372, November 1958, p. 372.

II

Institutions of higher learning have also reflected this zeal for conformity and zest for mediocrity. For it is both the weakness and greatness of democracy that its popular desires permeate its social institutions. But learning is not a mass process but an individual accomplishment. Actually the student's experience is probably not significant unless he has become imbued with the concept of self-education. If he has, there is little danger that universities will become assembly-lines for turning out human automatons.

Philip E. Jacob in his study on the changing values of college life, pointed out that students see the chief rewards of higher education as vocational preparation, and as skill and experience in social adjustment. He believed that the college experience did less to liberalize student values than to socialize the student and to help him to fit more comfortably into his society. So the prevalence of conformity, apparently on some campuses, appears to be a characteristic of college life.

At least three trends have contributed to the current collegiate atmosphere. First, personal adjustment has seemed to take precedence over individual learning. This concept, unfortunately, has become the leading "educational" dogma for many parents, for some counselors, for a few professors, and for countless students. No intelligent person would deny the value of emotional maturity and of the capacity to adjust to various situations. But these very qualities are probably less often acquired by the usual techniques devised to expedite the student's adjustment than by his experience in the wisely guided classroom, in the effectively used library and laboratory, and by association with similarly motivated classmates and competent professors. Then too, the student's growth is aided by counseling with advisers who are so well oriented themselves that they sometimes sense danger in the consistent conformer and see merit in the occasional nonconformer. In the words of "Mr. Harper," we should find ways "to be part of a group without selling out our privacy or our individuality for a mess of adjustment."

Extracurricular activities, if sensibly utilized, can be useful student experiences. But these are not the "natural training instruments" at a university. Here the major concern is that the student has his spirit of inquiry aroused, his intellectual circumference enlarged, his mind disciplined and his "taste for excellence" developed. This is not a Utopian dream impossible of achievement, but a vision of the possible for those who can catch the gleam.

An effective counselor need not necessarily be an intellectual leader but he must be no alien to the intellectual life. He must comprehend it and respect it, otherwise he cannot aid those he counsels in getting their bearings in the melee of campus activities.

Unfortunately, many youths as well as adults still think that to be educated means first of all to conform; to be a nonconformist is equivalent to being an abnormal person; being "adjusted" is better than being informed; learning to "socialize" is more important than learning to think. But acquiring the ability to think, which is one of the university's basic objectives for its students, is not done, as William Hocking observed, by doing something else than thinking. Furthermore, daily mingling "in the pallid company of the uncommitted" is destructive to independent thinking.

A second trend, at least in some institutions, is towards an increased interest in vocational education and a decreased interest in study of the liberal arts. Courses in the learning of skills often lend themselves more readily to regimentation and conformity than does learning in the humanities. Then too, the teaching of vocational subjects and skills is frequently tailored to the current commercial demands rather than to the ablest development of the student's individual abilities. Even research on the graduate level is sometimes designed to meet the specific need of a single business firm and fails to provide the student with valuable training in basic research.

Some believe that the present century "confuses technical knowledge with wisdom." For youth customarily seems more eager to acquire the "know how" than the "know why," yet it is the latter which trains his mind to inquire, to reason, and to understand. The heart of our educational problem, insists Dr. James R. Killian, is that we do not have the respect for "developing men and ideas" that we have for making and acquiring things.

A third trend is the cult of anti-intellectualism which has invaded the campus as well as the market place. Its basic philosophy is, "What is popular must be good." Its favorite affirmation is, "I'd rather be a bonehead than an egghead." In government, the anti-intellectuals favor the common man over the trained expert. In society and business, they see great virtue in conformity to the group. In cultural matters, they believe that what is currently popular must be the most desirable. In education, they think that students invariably know best what college is for, and that cultivating an agreeable personality is preferable to developing a vigorous intellect. Even in the area of

humor, Mort Sahl observes that the ultimate tabu in American comedy is neither racial jokes nor off-color jokes but intellectual content.

The Institute of Public Opinion reported that fewer people in the United States read books than in any other democracy. The average Briton reads three times as many books as an American; four million Danes have over half as many bookstores as this country; seven million Swedes have almost as many public libraries as does the United States. Yet we have greater wealth and probably more leisure than any other nation. In 1955, a Gallup poll revealed that of the American adults interviewed, 61 per cent had read no book except the Bible during the past year. Of those who had gone to college, 26 per cent had not read a book during the same period.

Americans are the only people, insists J. Donald Adams, who have invented words which suggest that being interested in things of the mind is somehow reprehensible. The egghead is often subject to suspicion or ridicule, and Adams points out that some current writers actually "glorify the muttonhead and hold him up to admiration."

President Griswold of Yale deplores the decline in conversation which he contends "is drowned out in the singing commercials. . . . It starves for want of reading and reflection. It languishes in a society that spends so much time passively listening and being talked to that it has all but lost the will and the skill to speak for itself."²

III

Such anti-intellectual trends are not the occasion for despair but they are adequate reason for serious concern. There are several ways by which we might possibly help.

We as individuals should cultivate the spirit of skepticism in our daily life. This need not be a cynical approach but rather an adaptation of the scientific method to our daily routine.

Why not get into the habit of questioning the preposterous claims of the advertiser; the wholesale promises of the politician; the miraculous assertions of the salesman; the clever attack of the journalist; the persuasive argument of the professor? It would be more strenuous than acquiescing but it would also be more enlightening and much more exhilarating. The right to question is, indeed, the heart of personal and social freedom, and as such is basic to true learning and

² A. Whitney Griswold, "On Conversations—Chiefly Academic," *In the University Tradition*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1957, pp. 34-35.

the democratic process. It is almost impossible to overstress the importance of the skeptical spirit in the developing of the educated man and of the independent citizen.

Furthermore, we should challenge the virtue of widespread conformity while paying heed to the constructive nonconformist. In many areas, conforming of course is desirable and actually a necessity if one is to survive in our complex civilization. But a pressured conformity which invades a man's personal integrity and his freedom to think, to choose, and to act, will stifle human personality and injure a democratic society. Indeed there is wisdom in the admonition to keep fertile the soil where dissent and nonconformity grow.

Last, we as citizens should invigorate our belief in a democratic society. We can demonstrate this by active devotion rather than by lip service to the concept of free men; by our faith in their potential and in their ability to govern themselves; by actions in which we strive to help the individual to retain or to regain his integrity.

We mobilize and pledge our honor to defend our country when at war. Why not mobilize the tradesman and the professor, the union man and the plant manager, the technician and the counselor, and join their efforts to resist both the antidemocratic surge and the tyranny of the commonplace? Such a movement could so alter the tone of the nation that its intellectual and moral efforts might rival its material and scientific accomplishments. A revitalized Italy had its renaissance in the fifteenth century. An aroused and dedicated United States could have its renascence in the twentieth century.

We cannot produce equality of capacity but we can facilitate equality of opportunity. Also we must recognize that in a truly democratic society, there are varying peaks of personal achievement and that society is wise which heeds not only the voice of the common man but also that of the uncommon man. As a king must not lose the common touch, neither must democratic man lose the vision of excellence.

In seeking the solution to such problems as these, Bertrand Russell offers wise counsel. May we learn, he says, "to live without certainty and yet not be paralyzed with hesitation."

After a Decade: Fair Educational Practices Legislation*

CHARLES E. PETERSON JR.

OFFICERS OF ADMISSION have for many years operated in an atmosphere of semiautonomy, making selections of candidates in the best interests of both the applicant and the institution served. This independence from external pressure has been a precious thing, vigorously won and jealously guarded. And there has been good reason for this relative freedom, for the admission officer has proved himself an educational counselor rather than a pedagogical huckster. But in recent times the admission decisions have been guided and shaped by many forces, economic, political, moral. The legislative principles developed to safeguard "fair educational practices" have become a determinant in the admission process of many of our colleges.

This intrusion, if such it may be called, of the state into areas formerly held to be the sole domain of the college administration is a product of the march of history and seems to have reached some sort of culmination about 1945 with the end of the Second World War, but its antecedents can be traced back to the granting of colonial charters to some of our early colleges. Princeton, Dartmouth, and Wesleyan incorporated in their charters specific prohibitions against religious tests for students, and other beginnings are of the same tenor—Columbia, Pittsburgh, and Chicago, for example. Religious affiliation seems to have been the only restraining element as far as the choice of the student body was concerned.

The year 1945 marked a turning point in the formulation of a philosophy of education already under severe strain from the forces of a surging democracy. War and the exigencies of the defense plant had swept away much of the class feeling, racial intolerance, and onerous discrimination of former times and had replaced it with a feeling of common manhood, of mutual sacrifice, and of joint future aspiration. The ideals of World War II promised equality of opportunity in education as a significant aspect of democracy.

Bulging colleges, pressures for admission, and limited facilities,

* Research and correspondence for this article were completed during the first six months of 1959.

especially in the graduate fields, soon forced legislators to turn their attention to evidences of discrimination in higher education. The use of federal funds for the support of G.I. students added urgency to the problem. It is more than coincidence that at this time the realization came that a "cold war" was upon us and that evidence of discrimination in American colleges would be propaganda grist for the enemy mill.

The prevailing philosophy of the period is summed up in the words of Judge Stein of the Superior Court of New Jersey, speaking in 1949:

... The public funds emanate from common sources without distinction of color, race, or creed. The duties and responsibilities of citizenship are discharged alike by the white and colored citizens, witness the effort made, the blood shed, and the lives sacrificed on common battlefields by citizens of all kinds of color, creed, and race. Man's sense of justice, coupled with an enlightened understanding of our common humanity, would dictate that if there were to be no segregation in the field of civic duty and sacrifice, there be none in the realm of human dignity and equality.¹

This feeling found expression in New York's Quinn-Olliffe legislation of 1948. But such thinking on the rights of citizens in college admission was relatively recent. In 1936 Elliott and Chambers reported the current belief about the selective rights of colleges:

Universities and colleges under private control are generally free to select whom they will admit as students since no one is entitled to enter a private institution as a matter of right.²

As recently as 1946, *American Jurisprudence* contained this statement:

Since the relation of a private college or university to its students is based on contract, such an institution may select those whom it will receive and may refuse to admit students because of sex, age, lack of educational proficiency, or for no reason at all.³

Contrast this with the thought expressed in the following, probably

¹ As quoted by John P. Milligan in "Perspective on: Civil Rights in New Jersey," a reprint of an article appearing in the March 1956 *NJEA Review*.

² Edward C. Elliott and M. M. Chambers, *The Colleges and the Courts*. New York: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1936, p. 20.

³ Edwin S. Oakes and George S. Gulick, ed., *American Jurisprudence*, 15. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Company, 1946, p. 11.

illustrative of legal and philanthropic thought at the close of the war:

An educational system which predicates its very existence on the principle that one group of intellects belongs in a corner forfeits its claim to the term "education."⁴

In these statements it is easy to see the seeds of conflict between public good and private right. Law, like all conventions of human design, takes its shape and context from the technology, the social thought, and the commonly accepted "philosophy" of any people, and the fair educational practices legislation and its underlying theory of human rights is a choice example of legal responsiveness to public thought and will.

To view this problem properly, it is first necessary to consider briefly the nature of the institution of higher education as a corporation in the legal sense. The authority to incorporate is essential for the life of the institution, and even beyond, for one of the prime advantages of the corporate status is the assurance of the continued life of the corporation beyond the individual lives of the incorporators. Since the power to incorporate is vested with the state government, the existence of the corporation is at the sufferance of the state, which reserves the right to regulate corporations under its jurisdiction in the public interest.

Many of the early charters and acts of incorporation were accompanied by direct financial support from the states, although this has largely ceased to be a consideration as far as private institutions are concerned. But the principle that the donor shall have the right to direct the use of his charity has been transferred from a strictly financial context to one of educational direction drawing its sanction from the "donation" of the right of incorporation.⁵ Since the concept of "donor" has been interpreted to include both private and public acts of charity, the state has been on established ground in its interpretation of the grant of incorporation as a mandate to enter into the affairs of the incorporated institution in order to protect its charity.

State authority to alter contractual agreements suffered a bitter setback with the Dartmouth College case of 1819. Charters issued sub-

⁴ First Southwide Conference on Discrimination in Higher Education, *Discrimination in Higher Education*. Southern Conference Educational Fund, Inc., 1951, p. 29.

⁵ The courts have been fairly explicit in support of this principle, especially those of California in their extensive grants to the elder Stanfords in connection with their famous educational benefactions.

sequently have almost invariably reserved to the state the right of alteration or repeal. This initial stipulation has been of considerable importance, for the courts have held that if the institution is considered a private corporation, the charter represents a contract, which, if there is no reserved power of alteration, cannot be altered by the legislature with the consent of the corporation.⁶ The state has also exercised the right to legislate concerning the educational institutions under its control, using the police powers and the liberal constitutional interpretation of the provisions for the general welfare.

A legal principle second only to the definition of corporate structure is that involved in the whole matter of tax exemption for higher education. Not an inherent right, such exemption must be specifically allocated by the state. The taxing function is one of the most highly cherished prerogatives of government and it is relinquished only for the most compelling reasons. In the case of higher education, the justification for such exemption is found in the belief that these institutions perform functions which might otherwise have to be performed by the state with tax funds. Originally, this privilege was granted in the hope that it would encourage private philanthropy and thus reduce the burdens of the state. With the passage of time it came to represent a tacit admission that there were some functions which could be performed in a superior fashion by private initiative as opposed to state administration.

The threat of removal of tax exempt status is not an idle one. Shortly after the close of the recent war, suit was brought to cancel the tax exemption of Columbia University for the year 1945-46 on the ground that the Tax Commissioner had made no inquiry as to whether the university had complied with the tax exemption statute of 1935. The suit was dismissed on a technicality, but had it been sustained, would have cost Columbia an estimated \$1,750,000 for the year in question.⁷ If tax exempt status were denied American higher education, it is conceivable that it would be a death blow to many institutions now in serious financial trouble.

In the matter of corporate status, and more particularly, in the area of tax exemption, the line of distinction between public and private institutions grows dim and blurred:

Private institutions no less than public institutions are by their charters

⁶ Oakes and Gulick, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

⁷ M. M. Chambers, *The Colleges and the Courts 1941-46*. New York: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1946, p. 5.

dedicated to the public service. Private institutions receive direct or indirect benefits from tax-supported programs of student aid; many receive state and federal grants for research and other purposes. Most public institutions have income from student fees and individual donations; many receive substantial contributions from industry and philanthropic foundations. Institutions of both types enjoy tax-exemption because of their public purpose. Hence in terms of financial support, no institution is strictly private or strictly public.⁸

Operating on this assumption, it is not difficult to see why states have ignored the distinction between public and private education in securing passage of "fair educational practices" legislation.⁹

Over the years there has been a consistent attempt by the courts to weigh the social desirability of legislation against the erosive effects of restrictions on individual and corporate freedom. The success of the attempt is much disputed and inevitably hangs upon one's social philosophy, but the principle seems well established:

Much of law, as in all of politics, is a balancing of diverse interests; it is seldom indeed that any concept is of such overriding importance that it will be carried out without regard for countervailing interests. This is particularly true of the "great generalities" of the Constitution.¹⁰

A number of cases and actions contributed to the formation of a climate of public sentiment in which "fair educational practices" in higher education became the proper concern of the legislative branch of the government. The Esteb case in 1926 established the principle that a four-year collegiate education may be a "necessary" to which a minor person may be entitled as a right. The Lloyd Gaines case in 1938 and the 1956 cases involving Autherine Lucy and Virgil Hawkins were essentially concerned with segregation and the rights of Negroes, but accomplished a great deal in molding public opinion on the entire issue of discrimination for whatever reasons.

It was hoped by many that the decision of the Supreme Court on May 17, 1954 (Brown vs. the Board of Education) could be extended

⁸ The Problems and Policies Committee of the American Council on Education, *The Need to Close Ranks in Higher Education*. Washington: The American Council on Education, 1959, p. 2.

⁹ For a recent discussion of relations between the state and public higher education, see The Committee on Government and Higher Education, *The Efficiency of Freedom*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1959.

¹⁰ Arthur S. Miller, *Racial Discrimination and Private Education*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1957, p. 94.

to cover discriminatory practices in higher education, but subsequent legal opinion does not add substance to this hope.¹¹

In any event, as early as the close of the Second World War, the forces opposing discrimination in any form in higher education were pressuring state legislatures for action. Their rallying point is defined by John T. Kenna:

Discrimination against minority groups in higher education is the least defensible of the many unlovely aspects of discrimination itself. First, it is a denial of the humanity of some individuals in the most essential sense—mental and spiritual potentialities. Secondly, it is the affirmation that certain groups should "stay in their place," in the sense that only a specified number of their group really ought to be permitted in a profession or that the world of the intellect, of all worlds, ought to be organized on a country-club basis. The third aspect of discrimination in higher education which makes it a matter of concern to us at this writing is the frustration and despair of boys and girls who, already well on the way to attaining proficiency in their chosen field, find the way to normal and natural completion of studies blocked by man-made obstacles deliberately constructed for their benefit.¹²

II

New York, a cosmopolitan and heterogeneous state, was a logical place for "fair educational practices" legislation to begin, and it was here that the first concrete action was taken with the passage of the Quinn-Olliffe bill in 1948. The shortage of facilities, particularly in medical education, had led to postwar charges of discrimination, and the New York City Mayor's Committee on Unity found in 1946 extensive evidence of discriminatory practices in admission to medical schools. In fact, it is suggested by Chambers that the quota system of the medical schools may have led directly to the 1948 legislation and the demand for a state university.¹³ Studies disclosed discrimination directed first against those of Italian birth, secondly, against Jews, and thirdly, against Catholics. A study made in 1947 by Elmo Roper

¹¹ See especially J. J. Valenti, Paul A. Woelfl, S.J., and James O'Shaughnessy, "A Double Revolution?", *Harvard Educational Review*, 25: 1, Winter 1955, pp. 14-15; and Arthur E. Sutherland, "The Supreme Court and Private Schools," *Harvard Educational Review*, 25: 3, Summer 1955, p. 128.

¹² First Southwide Conference, *op. cit.*, pp. 27-28.

¹³ M. M. Chambers, "State Constitutional and Statutory Limitations on College Admission Practices," *Educational Forum*, 13: 3 part 1, March 1949, p. 340.

on behalf of the Committee on Discrimination in College Admissions of the American Council on Education showed collegiate discrimination, especially in the Northeast. The findings of this survey held that if ability and eagerness were important factors in college admission (and most institutions gave at least nominal allegiance to these criteria) Jews had to work harder in these areas to gain an equivalent proportion of admissions and hence were discriminated against.¹⁴

The State Commission on the Need for a State University substantiated these earlier reports and made recommendations, most of which were later included in the Quinn-Olliffe law. It is interesting to note that the campaign for "fair educational practices" legislation followed the maxims laid down by Robert M. MacIver for the amelioration of socially disintegrative forces:

The primary attack on discrimination should rally to the cause of national welfare and national unity. . . . Wherever the direct attack is feasible, that is, the attack on discrimination itself, it is more promising than the indirect attack, that is, the attack on prejudice as such. It is more effective to challenge conditions than to challenge attitudes or feelings.¹⁵

There had been previous attempts at the prevention of discrimination in the "public accommodations" laws, but these lacked enforcement. Then, too, section 40a of the state constitution prohibits the asking of religion or religious affiliation of any person seeking employment in the public schools of the State of New York. This did not, however, govern college admissions, the area in which agitation was most acute.

Soon after the war, the first legislative attempt at regulation of college admissions was made in the Austin-Mahoney bill which was vigorously opposed by the clergy and by most college administrators because it denied exemption from the provisions of the law to those institutions exclusively religious in character. It was defeated in the legislature.

The Quinn-Olliffe law, incorporating many of the provisions of the Austin-Mahoney proposal, was signed by the governor on April 5, 1948 to go into effect in September of that year. Its provisions were

¹⁴ American Council on Education Committee on a Study of Discrimination in College Admissions, *On Getting Into College*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1949, *passim*.

¹⁵ Robert M. MacIver, *The More Perfect Union*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948, pp. 244 and 247.

a model for the legislation of several other states and are summarized briefly here:

1. It is an unfair educational practice to exclude from any post-secondary institution of instruction applicants because of race, creed, or national origin.
2. It is an unfair educational practice to penalize anyone for initiating, testifying, participating, or assisting in the proceedings of fair educational practices investigations.
3. It is an unfair educational practice to accept any endowment or gift a condition of which is the teaching of race supremacy.
4. Religious organizations selecting their student bodies on the basis of creed primarily in order to preserve denominational characteristics are exempt from the law upon the completion of certain specified procedures.
5. Provision for complaint, investigation, hearing, conciliation, and court action where necessary, is detailed.¹⁶

Although this description has been necessarily brief, several aspects of the legislation are worthy of comment. First, the law, as enacted, covers only institutions of post-secondary grade and does not include private elementary and secondary institutions. Secondly, though the matter of tax exemption is involved in the definition of institutions covered in the act (any institution subject to the jurisdiction of the board of regents or the commissioner of education), such exemption is not dependent upon proof of lack of discrimination.¹⁷ Third, institutions are required to preserve records for a minimum of three years in order to provide evidence in event of complaint. Finally, admissions criteria other than those specifically mentioned in the statute are not forbidden, and this, according to supporters of the legislation, has not affected the quota system although this was the intent of the bill.¹⁸

New Jersey was the next state to take action in the form of an amendment to the fair employment practices legislation passed in 1945. The Freeman act, effective on March 16, 1949, extended the initial legislation to cover educational institutions and places of public accommodation. The provisions are essentially those of the New York law, but are broader in coverage, including all levels of education from kindergarten through graduate school. In addition, the law

¹⁶ *Equality of Opportunity in College Admission: The New York State Education Practices Act*. Albany: The University of the State of New York, 1949.

¹⁷ Edward N. Saveth, "Fair Educational Practices Legislation," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences*, 275, May 1951, p. 41.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 42.

covers discriminatory practices after the act of admission and has been construed to govern the use of all college facilities. The enforcing agency, the Division Against Discrimination of the State Department of Education, has operated on the belief that "in the long run elimination of unlawful discrimination against individuals because of race, color, creed, or ancestry will be accomplished by the elimination of prejudices through a process of changes which occur in the hearts and minds of men."¹⁹ As in New York, the law does not prevent the using of criteria other than race, creed, color, national origin, or ancestry in the admission of students.

Massachusetts became the third state to take action, when on August 22, 1949 it adopted the Fair Educational Practices Act, modeled on the New York statute but broader in scope. It, like New Jersey's law, included all levels and encompassed secretarial, business, and vocational schools. The admission of transfer students was specifically mentioned in the legislation and the ban on discriminatory questions on the application form was extended to those of an oral nature. In addition to religious institutions, exemption is provided for schools of a "distinctly private" nature, such as a school for children of faculty members in which parental circumstance is the determining factor in admission. This provision has been strictly enforced.²⁰

The state of Washington does not have a "fair educational practices" law, as such, but the law against discrimination in employment, public accommodations, and publicly assisted housing, includes "educational institutions or schools of special instructions" in the definition of places of public accommodation. Hence, discrimination in employment or admission policies would be unlawful. Oregon in 1957 gave the Civil Rights Division of the Bureau of Labor jurisdiction over its existing law prohibiting discrimination in trade, professional, and vocational schools.

A number of other states have been moving toward enactment of "fair educational practices" legislation. Both Connecticut and California have had before their legislatures proposals for such action, but, to date, no such measures have been adopted. The Pennsylvania legislative session of 1957 failed to pass a bill which would have

¹⁹ New Jersey, Department of Education, Division Against Discrimination, *Annual Report July 1, 1953 to June 30, 1954*, p. 7.

²⁰ Saveth, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

brought into being similar legislation for the Keystone State. Interestingly enough, a survey of Philadelphia high school seniors disclosed that only one per cent of those questioned felt that racial or religious barriers stood between them and further education. This compared with 17 per cent who felt that financial barriers were significant. The committee making the study felt that inequalities would increase as admission pressures mount in the future, even though they did not seem to the young people questioned to be serious handicaps at present. The committee felt further that admission pressures would tend to reactivate old discriminatory practices which may have fallen into disuse.²¹ Wisconsin has adopted a statute which is basically a fair employment practices law, but which also prohibits discrimination "in the fields of housing, recreation, education, and social welfare."

Still other states appear to be moving in the same direction. Section 5 of Indiana House Bill 242, approved March 8, 1949, prohibits discrimination in any college or university supported in part or in whole by public funds.²² Illinois has tackled the problem from a voluntary standpoint with the adoption by the University of Illinois of a code of "fair educational practices" formulated by the U. S. National Student Association. Copies of the code were distributed to all officers and faculty members, and attempts are being made to "forbid" discrimination in those areas under university control and to "encourage the elimination" of discrimination in other areas.²³ The Illinois Committee on Discrimination in Higher Education has proposed a "model policy" for adoption by institutions subscribing to its principles. It is a comprehensive program covering admission, classroom procedures, housing, recreation, financial assistance, and other aspects of collegiate life.²⁴

Thus, while only a few states have taken definitive legislative action on the problem of discrimination in admission to higher education, it appears that such action will be forthcoming in other states in the future. Scarcely a session of the assembly will pass in many states

²¹ Albert J. Nesbitt, *Findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations of the Philadelphia Committee on Higher Educational Opportunities (a Summary)*. Philadelphia: The Committee, January 28, 1958.

²² Robin M. Williams and Margaret W. Ryan, ed., *Schools in Transition*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1954, p. 254.

²³ Editorial comment by R. H. Eckelberry, *The Journal of Higher Education*, 29: 9, December 1958, pp. 511-512.

²⁴ Illinois Committee on Discrimination in Higher Education, *Model Policy Related to Discrimination in Higher Education*. 1955.

without the introduction of antidiscrimination bills, and it is likely that the list of adoptions will grow steadily in the years ahead.

III

It was too much to expect that all the reaction to "fair educational practices" legislation would be favorable. The American Council on Education voiced its opposition to the legislation which, while well-intentioned, "would place in the hands of the state a threat to the freedom of colleges now independent of political control."²⁵ Former President Seymour of Yale viewed antidiscrimination laws as useless as the Prohibition which attempted to legislate America into sobriety. "Mere passage of laws," he said, "will not sound the death knell for any discrimination that might exist. Public opinion is the only thing that will be effective."²⁶

But perhaps the real test of any law comes in violations thereof and the necessity of enforcing the provisions of the legislation. Let us look briefly at the experience of the states having "fair educational practices" statutes.

In New York, like the other affected states, the approach of the enforcing agency has been one of education and conciliation rather than rigorous application of the penal provisions. This approach seems to have been effective. Conferences with educators and gentle persuasion have had a salutary effect on the actions of affected institutions. By 1950, of 270 application forms on file from 123 institutions, only one asked a required question on religion, one an indirect religious question, one a question on nationality, and one a question on race.²⁷ In 1952 there were no complaints under the provisions of the law, and up to 1954 there had been a cumulative total of only nine complaints, four concerning Negroes and five involving Jews. In general the number of complaints is few—less than ten per year.

In most of the cases the complaints were found upon investigation to be unjustified. Practice has shown that geographical quotas on residents of the New York City area used by certain colleges, and permissible under the law, are in effect difficult to separate from outright religious discrimination. Then, too, the legislation has proved to have

²⁵ *New York Times*, January 3, 1948, p. 27.

²⁶ *New York Times*, March 14, 1948, p. 76.

²⁷ Saveth, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

within it the seeds of another problem of enforcement. Since colleges may not collect discriminatory information on their application forms, it becomes almost impossible for an applicant to prove discrimination in relation to other members of the group considered for admission.²⁸ A spokesman for New York indicates that at the present time there is little evidence of systematic discrimination in operation. "Students are broadly dispersed on the basis of their religion. Nationality, race, or religion just doesn't enter into the admissions picture any more," he adds, referring to systematic and planned quotas and exclusions.²⁹

In New Jersey the experience has been similar, with only a few complaints registered up to 1954. All of these involved trade or professional schools. In one case, the Division Against Discrimination ordered a change in the school's admission policies, disallowing the school's contention that assured job placement was a part of its program and that such placement could not be assured in the case of Negroes. John P. Milligan, Assistant Commissioner of Education, says, "We believe the legislation covering higher education institutions may have been effective although we have received only two complaints. I believe that our New Jersey colleges, public and private, do not practice discrimination in admittance."³⁰

Massachusetts has observed a drop in the number of discriminatory questions on the application forms of its institutions and feels that this decrease has made discrimination more difficult. Observable quota systems have decreased and educational authorities seem to want to cooperate. The use of the photograph had been stubbornly retained until a ruling of the Attorney General on December 20, 1957 declared this an "unfair educational practice." Massachusetts had received no formal complaints as of 1954, but had conducted two dozen informal investigations involving alleged discrimination against Negroes, Jews, Protestants, Catholics, and Greeks.³¹

²⁸ Pamela Rice, "A Legislative Attack on Educational Discrimination," *Journal of Negro Education*, 23: 1, Winter 1954, p. 101 ff.

²⁹ Letter from Theron A. Johnson, Administrator, Division of Intercultural Relations in Education, New York State Education Department, Albany, N.Y., March 26, 1959.

³⁰ Letter from John P. Milligan, Division Against Discrimination, New Jersey Department of Education, Trenton, N.J., March 26, 1959.

³¹ Joint memorandum published by the American Jewish Committee and the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, April 2, 1958.

It was anticipated by those charged with the enforcement of the legislation that the certification of religious groups might cause trouble. Apparently these fears were exaggerated, for by 1951, only 47 New York colleges, representing only 15 per cent of the college enrollment in that state, had made application for exemption from the provisions of the law. It should be repeated here that any religious exemption did not exempt the institution from the sections of the law dealing with race, color, or national origin.

It is probable that "fair educational practices" legislation has made an impact on other states not having such measures. In Pennsylvania, for example, the number of discriminatory questions on college application forms decreased significantly between 1953 and 1956. If proposed legislation is enacted, the Pennsylvania situation will show an even greater change. Public opinion and the desire for public favor are making themselves felt.

One might well ask why there have been so few complaints even in the presence of established grievance and investigation procedures. Rice cites four reasons for this:

1. Lack of knowledge of the law.
2. Fear of being "black-listed." This appears to be particularly true of medical students who fear the loss of a good internship because of a "trouble-maker" rating.
3. Too much trouble to file complaints. Almost all good students are admitted somewhere and this makes the filing of a complaint anticlimactic.
4. Lack of access to college records prevents the applicant from actually determining the presence of discrimination.³²

Shoemaker suggests another reason. Feelings of discrimination may in reality be a cover for academic unpreparedness which would be unmasked if a complaint were to be filed.³³

The American Jewish Congress and the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith have been critical of the operation of the "fair educational practices" laws and have differed in particular with the report of the New York State Regents which testified to the good progress made in the accommodation of institutions to the provisions of the

³² Rice, *op. cit.*, p. 101.

³³ Don Shoemaker, ed., *With All Deliberate Speed*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957, p. 176.

legislation. Studies conducted by the American Jewish Congress point to the interview as a second line of discrimination. This, the organization claims, is now used by some colleges as a method of ascertaining the information formerly sought through the application from questions. It is entirely possible that the next attack in the field of "fair educational practices" legislation will come against the personal interview as an admissions device.³⁴

To correct what these groups feel are deficiencies in existing statutes, several revisions have been proposed. First, it is suggested that civil liberties groups be permitted to file petitions of grievance on behalf of persons believing themselves to be the victims of discrimination in admission. This is presently not possible in any of the states having "fair educational practices" legislation, and could conceivably result in a large increase in complaints. Second, it is proposed that there be a specific spelling out in the law of the sort of questions considered discriminatory. Third, there is agitation for a more vigorous enforcement of the laws, especially in the requiring of the publishing of admission policies by affected institutions. Fourth, and this has been a particular source of disappointment in New York, it is urged that more investigations be initiated without waiting for formal complaints. The adoption of these suggestions would, the critics believe, do much to reduce the number of trouble spots in the present legislation.³⁵

SUMMARY

With the acceptance of the right of the state to legislate for the control of college admission policies, the number of "fair educational practices" statutes has been increasing year by year and gives promise of continued future growth. Some who oppose state interference in any form have suggested the extension of state-supported facilities as preferable to statutory control of private policies, although financial considerations may make this impossible. Private institutions are sensitive to charges of being autocratic and restrictive and have co-operated

* A recent study by the American Jewish Congress indicates that religious discrimination seems to be diminishing, especially for students in the top 25 per cent of their high school graduating class. See "A Survey of the Experiences of 1235 New York State High School Graduates in Seeking Admission to College." New York: American Jewish Congress, July 1959 (mimeographed).

³⁴ Rice, *op. cit.*, p. 105.

with public efforts to eliminate discrimination. It is possible that institutions wishing to maintain selectivity will resort to devices not under the coverage of the present legislation. The numerical factors of college enrollment may play a part in the future too, for few applicants result in little discrimination, while a flood of candidates brings a great deal of it. "Fair educational practices" laws in the future will be governed by political, economic, and philosophical considerations, but probably most of all by prevailing social belief and thought.

An English Curriculum for the Twentieth Century*

GERHARD FRIEDRICH

THE OLD SAYING, balladized by Kipling, that East is East, and West is West, and never the twain shall meet, has in the twentieth century become manifestly—though sometimes in rather troublesome fashion—untrue. Even for so apparently innocuous an academic subject as "English" the jet age has suggested a new perspective of unsettling and enlarged horizons; impulses, considerations originated in one section are speedily felt in other sections as well. Let me cite by way of example a few recent facts, from the East and from the West. *Item:* this past year Harvard College had 280 freshmen, one third of the entire class, who qualified for advanced placement in one or more subjects, and 55 students who had taken several college-level courses in American secondary schools were admitted directly into the sophomore class. *Item:* this past year a group of teachers trained at the University of California formed in San Francisco the English 300 Society, aimed at ensuring the literary substance and intellectual quality of their subject. *Item:* this past year 2346 secondary-school students all across the country took the College Entrance Examination Board's Advanced Placement Examination in Literature and English Composition, once again approximately a doubling of numbers over the preceding year. There is in other words a good deal of imaginative vitality at work to develop college English as the humanly challenging subject which it essentially is.

But college English as many of us know it or observe it suffers from multiple fractures and from an amazing willingness to betray its own personality. Here I want to identify certain problems with which college English is beset, and venture to suggest the direction of some reputable solutions, intriguing to the student and satisfying to the instructor.

First, then, is college English a service department of handbooks and workbooks, where toward the end of the second decade of his existence a human being is at long last to be shown how to use the

* Presented at the West Coast Advanced Placement Conference sponsored jointly by Portland State College and Reed College, June 1959.

elements of what is after all his native language, or is it genuinely an area of learning, with literature as its proper subject? That is a blunt either-or question, and deliberately so. It does not deny that a course concerned with literary experience is necessarily involved with language, and should require of the students many oral and written responses to what is being read. Indeed, Professor Willard Thorpe made *The Wall Street Journal* and *The New York Times Book Review* by drawing attention to the "No-English" produced at examination time in his sophomore course in American literature; but Princeton for all that does not offer a separate Freshman composition course. It is a sport easier and less expensive than miniature golf to point accusingly to the perennial epidemic of linguistic blunders and blemishes; and English departments far too frequently agree to serve as jackasses extraordinary charged with mending the comma faults and atrocious misspellings of history and biology majors, or as master mechanics supervising the construction of what is supposed to be a sociology research paper. Presumably the history professor and the biology professor are academically and verbally also quite astute, and language is as much—or nearly as much—their educational tool as it is that of the instructor in literature. And the sociologist should by all odds be the best qualified person to teach the development of a significant sociological term paper. College teachers can simply not avoid directly or indirectly teaching composition; but each had better do it in relation to the subject of his department, which he knows and can present ably and interestingly. It would not occur to the philosopher or the physicist to rob his four-year curriculum of a solid year, notably the basic year, for the sake of an odds-and-ends course aimed at everybody and nobody. There are, however, freshman English courses aplenty in all the worlds we live in, with paper topics running the gamut from "What My Grandmother Didn't Look Like" to "Science in the Twenty-First Century," dabbling amateurishly in areas which are not the college English instructor's particular business. Let me add that for college credit in any case, personal essays describing once again "My Summer Vacation" or "My Favorite Haunt" seem to require something close to genius to be worth the writing and the reading.

Of course, practice in writing can and should be sensibly related to college-level literary study. What freshmen read and write about must, however, clearly mark a step beyond secondary school, and should

not be in the nature of a brush-up-your-articulation homogenizing course or of a screening program aimed at doing what the admissions office has failed to do. To bore freshmen and their instructors with a once-over version of essentially secondary school English is sheer folly. If we fail to challenge the incoming students right away with distinctly college-level tasks, we have forever lost the chance of constructively exploiting the buoyant impetus with which most secondary-school graduates enter college, and it is psychologically and educationally too late at the beginning of the sophomore year to have them make a successful transition to bona fide college work.

Not so long ago Professor Harold Martin described Freshman English as "the scarcely legitimate son of Composition, which itself had a noble ancestry in Logic and Rhetoric," and suggested that the freshman course should develop the ability to see clearly and to say clearly. I agree that one of its major purposes is further training in accurate and effective writing, but I would argue that the other, and in my opinion the primary one, is to develop an analytical and critical capacity in the appreciation of literature. I do not mean that freshmen should be misled and spoiled by a cocktail assortment of sophisticated literary tidbits, which makes everything before Hemingway appear unworthy, and which ends in a facile display of pretentious terminology. But I do insist on the right and the responsibility of the English department to design a freshman English course which makes sense in terms of the special perspective of that department, with its college-level aims. Insofar as a large number of writing assignments are added to the regular reading assignments, tests, and examinations—and there may be considerable carry-over value in such stress on composition, benefiting not only the English department—the sections of freshman and sophomore English have to be reasonably limited in size, and a "differential" has to be recognized in establishing an instructor's course load if we really want thorough, responsible teaching with regard to writing.

Second, is the college English curriculum a conglomeration, with an unhinged freshman course conceived outside the department, and half traditional, half haphazard offerings in the three years beyond, or is it a reasoned four-step progression in exploring our literary heritage? That, too, is an intentionally loaded question. A sampling of college catalogues shows a persistent tendency to dry-as-dust carving-up of the bulk of British literature: the sixteenth century, the

seventeenth century, the eighteenth century. But we are living in the twentieth century, conscious of one world, one humanity, in which the United States has pretty well come of age. Why, then, do we continue to underplay the logic of having our students become thoroughly acquainted with the best literary productions of their own country, and with certain aspects of world literature? We suffer from a curiously narrow Anglo-Saxon fixation, and we suffer also from a pedantic insistence on "surveying," i.e. "covering" a large number of authors and titles, instead of *discovering* those which still most vitally speak to the condition of modern humanity. If it is true that there have been but few really great writers in the history of mankind, and that most of them are dead, then there is cause to cherish that human richness preserved in imaginative language, and we should not pervert it by dull compilations and duller exercises. Nor should we ignore the increasing necessity of providing, on the one hand, access to Greek and Roman classics in translation, and on the other, insight into more recent, comparative, world literature.

Sophomore humanities courses are, however, perhaps not the most desirable remedy for tradition-bound curricular ills. They often give little or no perspective, and they tend to make students glib in snap-judging what could and should be more intelligently grasped in a context tighter than five countries and three centuries apart. There is an indicting parallel to that student phenomenon, the sophomore slump, in many English department curriculums. We help bring about that slump, as I have already indicated, by the deadly repetitiousness of freshman courses, and make sure it continues by our irresponsibility of paying but scant attention to the crucial in-between role of sophomore courses.

I favor a freshman year grounded in major works of British and perhaps other European literature, followed by a sophomore year in American literature. Elsewhere I have argued that such a sophomore course should not seek its main justification in historical documentation, from the Colonial period to the Civil War, etc. It is this kind of deviousness and tediousness, this lack of sensitivity to literature as an interpretation of the life that still is, which continues to kill the spirit of college English. In terms of literary interest and ability as well as in terms of substantial background knowledge, the lower-division courses must genuinely prepare for the increasingly complex and demanding undertakings in the department's upper-division

courses. I question, in other words, the practice of offering a whole slew of subjects which can be taken indiscriminately by sophomores, juniors, and seniors. If it makes really no difference, then we have plainly failed to justify a four-year curriculum.

There should be educationally meaningful distinctions between basic courses and advanced courses concentrated on periods, authors, and genres: a planned sequence of growth warranted by more than the so-called comprehensive view which majors are expected to demonstrate in final examinations. No English department should, therefore, fail to insist in the senior year on specialized semi-independent seminar and project opportunities. The battle for a vigorous, full-fledged English curriculum adapted to the conditions of our age as to the changing capacities of students developing over a period of four years is in numerous instances far from won. That this is so must frequently be ascribed to a specialized form of academic lethargy, namely an excessive insistence on teaching what one has taught before and how one has taught it before, or even on teaching only those subjects which were one's favorites in graduate school some fifteen or more years ago. It will do English teachers no harm to learn new things, to try new things, to grow.

Third, is the college English department obsessed with the advantages of having a poet or fiction writer in residence, or does it maintain that leaky student souls who must relieve their overmuch in literary effusions should take their portable typewriters and proceed to rent quarters on the Left Bank, in Greenwich Village, or in Beatnik-town? That is a cockeyed question, posing extremes, and the educational sense seems to lie somewhere between a necessarily circumscribed idolatry and the utter denigration of literary efforts controversially termed "creative writing." That the study of poems and novels and plays should induce individual students to engage in the composition of poems and novels and plays, and to seek the aid of demonstration and criticism in doing so, is not unreasonable. One may also recall Professor George Pierce Baker's famous "47 Workshop" at Harvard, which justified its existence by helping a number of authors whose names we know in developing their capacities. However, in most English departments such a possibility would make a rather limited argument, and courses in short-story writing and poetry writing must establish their usefulness on other grounds.

To be sure, encouragement and criticism from qualified instructors

may greatly benefit student-writers, insofar as it serves to correct false notions of sentimentalized aesthetics and special inspiration, and insofar as it induces the would-be author to cultivate the habit of literary expression beyond the understandable needs of adolescence. I would not, as some of my colleagues have done, build a case on the self-aggrandizing and therapeutic aspects of imaginative writing, nor would I overplay the notion that the college-connected artist whose raw material is language can be observed at the moment of creation or that he constitutes a good campus influence by the mere presence of his genius; but I would insist that the close study of different examples of a literary type combined with extensive opportunity to express and communicate something significant through experimentation with that medium, can enormously increase a student's awareness of and respect for the accomplishment of literary masters.

If so, departmental recognition of "creative writing" as a teaching device and as a course subject makes sense—with certain safeguards and certain extensions: one should want to select those driven and able enough to write in the form of poetry and prose fiction, not force the differently constituted to labor unprofitably and at last lose interest altogether; and one should follow up creditable efforts by means of a campus literary society, a literary magazine, perhaps by an arts festival as at Knox College. Not all creative wisdom is compressed in academic footnotes to a puzzling line in Shakespeare! We have as much cause to guard against attenuated Germanic scholarship, against the fixations of Francis Meres and Monk Lewis men, and against the erudite investigator of Emerson's maternal ancestors, as we have cause to guard against uncreated verbiage. Professor Randall Stewart delights in poking fun at the phenomenon of what he calls "the middle-Milton scholar," without feet and head, who has probably a good digestion.

I have thus fairly or perhaps unfairly slipped into a *fourth* question, indeed a complex of questions, which must seriously concern college English departments in the twentieth century: what is a reasonable view of the role of research and publishing? by what criteria are we to determine the usefulness of an English teacher in college, as against graduate school and secondary school? and how is undergraduate teaching differentiated from good secondary school instruction and from graduate work? Certainly a college instructor is em-

ployed for the specific task of teaching, and he should therefore mainly be expected to teach conscientiously and effectively; all other considerations (assuming that he is humane as well as human) are at best ancillary.

Of a person genuinely involved in his subject and his profession one may reasonably assume that literary study and teaching experience will from time to time result in insights and concerns which reach beyond the immediate classroom demands. This does not mean that an ambitious instructor, perhaps under administrative pressure, should neglect his course work for the sake of jumping into print with items which will nicely add to his bibliography, though they may contribute little or nothing to his effectiveness as a teacher. We have acquired an inflated regard for the published name, and I would warn against the fallacy of prestigious scholarship on the undergraduate level. We should at least not narrow the area of the creditable and desirable to scholarly research, but recognize the value of other professional and literary activities, such as imaginative tackling of educational problems, meaningful involvement in professional organizations, and publications other than learned articles. The academic equivalent of merely-judging-by-the-pound foolishness is an undervaluing of live, dedicated teaching which manages to sensitize students to language and to the humanizing impact of works of art. The young men and women we teach, even our majors, are in relatively few instances to develop into new critics or old investigators, but we proceed often in disregard of these educational facts.

Sandwiched between secondary-school and graduate school, college English has the function of a bridge, of making a continuum. Even when it constitutes a terminal education, it should progress from the one to the other. Too often, however, it is still marked by one-sided prejudice or a split personality, treating its general courses as disreputable chores without the chance of carrying professional prestige, and unduly favoring an imitation of graduate research activities. The Advanced Placement Program has already done a great deal to upgrade the importance of and the demands made upon college-freshman courses, whether offered in college or to selected students while still in secondary school. Also, the twelfth and the "thirteenth" grade seem no longer a Grand Canyon of protective ignorance apart: Advanced Placement subject-area examinations have made the transition

from secondary school to college a matter worthy of the most serious mutual deliberations. That is not a mean blessing.

We remain, however, beset by the misfortune that, as J. Donald Adams remarked a few months ago, "for many years now our colleges have been admitting students who are unable to write their own language simply and intelligibly." What is to be done about that? It seems to me that a college which admits students not sufficiently grounded in English has, as long as that practice persists, an obligation to provide "remedial English" opportunities without college credit. False pride or lack of concern in this regard can only result in a lowering of student performance, in many instances throughout the four years. We should, at the same time, exert effective pressure upon the schools, by insisting on college entrance tests in composition and by gradually raising the standards. Secondary schools should, at least in the senior year, shift from extensive to intensive work, from quantity to greater concern with quality.

This hope applies to the teaching of literature as well as to the teaching of composition: fewer personal and encyclopedia-derived essays, and more training in exposition and argumentation; less adulation of connotative fluency, and more emphasis on precise, "stripped" language; less group activities beating about the literary bushes, and more analytical and critical concern with how and why these symbolic bushes are burning in their peculiar ways; less of the subjective, more of the intellectual. Note that my phrasing here is deliberately comparative, and not absolute.

But, to return to my chosen topic, it seemed to me particularly appropriate before a mixed audience of secondary-school and college teachers, to point up some major trouble spots in the affairs of college English departments. We can ill afford to keep passing the buck up and down the educational ladder. Every point on the scale can stand some improvement, and it is a matter of collegiate irony that English departments can as yet rarely claim that they have succeeded in developing and implementing a comprehensive program suited to the needs of the twentieth century.

The Rise of Faculty Committees

JAMES KENNETH MUNFORD

WHEN I started this article I planned to call it "The Rise and Decline of Faculty Committees," but I soon found that I cannot document the decline. The function and status of faculty committees have shifted somewhat since the rise, but committees still hold a solid place on most campuses across the country. As a neutral body to hear evidence and render a decision, as a device for formulating recommendations or legislation, as a problem-solving or advisory group, or as a means of disseminating information and building morale through participation—in these ways the faculty committee still flourishes. It is true that some of the administrative tasks formerly performed by professors in their spare time are now handled by administrative officers, but the committee still lingers in the background to advise and guide the executive.

The rise can be rather well documented. At a certain, well-defined point in the development of nearly every American college and university, faculty committees rose to new stature on the campus. At that point they became an accepted part of the administrative organization. They achieved new respect and recognition. This point can be determined rather precisely in most institutions because along with the new stature and acceptance came the publication of their names in the general catalogue or similar annual bulletin.

Many colleges and universities had faculty committees, of course, some time before their listing became a regular feature of the catalogue. References to them in early reports, letters, biographies, and articles show that they existed. Governing boards had long followed the practice of having their standing committees, such as the executive committee and those on building and on finance, published in a prominent place in the annual catalogue. The real rise to prominence for faculty committees came when their listing also became a part of the annual catalogue.

This rise came in the last decade of the 19th century, give or take a few years either way. At several leading colleges and universities¹ annual publication of faculty committees began before 1890. At Cor-

¹ The "leading colleges and universities" used for this study are those members of the Association of American Universities, plus four colleges, listed in Table I.

nell University, for example, it came in 1883, at Johns Hopkins in 1885, at College of New Jersey (Princeton) in 1886, at Trinity College (Duke) in 1888, and at Harvard in 1849 and 1890. Others followed the lead, especially in the 1890's, and by 1910 the vast majority (84 per cent) of institutions whose catalogues were used for this study had adopted the practice, which became so widespread that it deserves more than a cursory glance.

WHY DID THEY RISE?

Why did faculty committees rise at this particular time? What patterns and pressures helped bring them about? What relationship existed between committees and efficient administration?

Foreign patterns. I would like to suggest that foreign universities may have served to some extent as an inspiration for starting committee systems in this country. The rise in the United States came in the period when many features of the German university were being tried out in this country. German catalogues in this period followed the practice of publishing faculty committees (*Ausschuss, Comité, das Komitee*) and commissions (*Kommission*). In the earliest German catalogues I have been able to examine, the university at Erlangen in the 1880's listed members of the Administrative Committee (*Verwaltungsausschuss*), Discipline Committee (*Disziplinarausschuss*), Fees Commission (*Honorarienkommission*), and Examination Commissions (*Prüfungskommissionen*). Somewhat similar sets of faculty committees appeared in the catalogues of the universities at Königsberg, Würzburg, Göttingen, Marburg, and Leipzig in the 1890's.

It might well be that both Gilman at Johns Hopkins and White at Cornell, for example, were influenced by this German means of sharing administrative and policy-making duties among faculty members. Both of them admired the German university and sought to adapt the good they found there to their new institutions in this country. A significant number of other university presidents incumbent at the time their institutions adopted the practice of publishing lists of faculty committees had studied in Germany: Hall at Clark, Crowell at Trinity (Duke), Noyes at MIT, James at Illinois, Angell at Michigan, and Hadley at Yale had all studied in German universities and were presidents at the time faculty committees began to appear in their catalogues.

In England, too, faculty committees date from early times and were listed in catalogues in the 19th century, but as adopted in this country committee systems resemble more the German pattern than those at Oxford and Cambridge. On the other hand, in the pattern developed in this country the lists of committees resembled each other more than they did those of any foreign university.

New president. In something like one-third of the institutions whose catalogues I have examined, annual committee lists began to appear within the first few years of the administration of a new president. In many cases, it looks as if the new man took this means of clarifying responsibilities and giving the faculty a new feeling of participation. Elisha Benjamin Andrews at Brown University serves as a fairly typical example. "At his touch," a Brown historian wrote, "the old college leaped to new life and began to grow at an astonishing rate."² In one of his first annual reports, Andrews remarked that "improved administration [was] making it less necessary than heretofore to call upon members of the Faculty for service other than teaching."³ At the same time the Brown *Catalogue* began listing standing committees of the faculty.

Edwin Anderson Alderman is another good example; in fact his example is so good that it warrants more detailed study. Alderman lost no time in setting up faculty committees at three universities. Shortly after he became president of the University of North Carolina, then Tulane University, and finally the University of Virginia, the catalogues began to list standing committees of the faculty.

At Virginia, Alderman had an especially difficult task. Following Jefferson's blueprint for the first 80 years, the University had had no president. The Board of Visitors elected a Rector from its own membership and the faculty annually elected its own chairman. Each part of the University was very nearly autonomous. Autonomy and independence of faculty is illustrated by the fact that previous to 1905 a number of the professors ran full-page advertisements in the official catalogue offering private tutoring and special summer courses—with fees payable directly to the professors! Alderman came to a campus that was steeped in tradition closely bound up with personal preroga-

² Walter C. Bronson, *The History of Brown University, 1764-1914*. Providence: Published by the University, 1914, p. 428.

³ Elisha Benjamin Andrews, *Annual Report of the President of the Corporation of Brown University, 1892*. Providence: The Providence Press, 1892, p. 9.

tives. One means he took to continue active and definitive faculty concern with administration was to set up and publish the official list of faculty committees. According to Bruce, "There was no single interest of the University—indeed, no important branch of any single interest—that was not under the protecting eye of a trained committee."⁴ The first year, the new president placed all but three of the 24 professors of full rank on one or more committees. The next year he added two of the three previously omitted and added four new professors. Only one professor, one noted for his tenacity and precision—"the impersonation of the old philosophers of the classic age"—appears to have been unreconstructed by Alderman's methods; he soon resigned.

One committee at Virginia, incidentally, shows how long a standing committee may stand once it gets to its feet. The Fire Protection Committee, whose chief duty consisted of watching "the condition of the several devices in use for fire protection" stood for four decades, and in those 40 years (1904-1944) only eight different individuals served on this committee, one of them for 27 years.

Following their establishment in 1904-5, faculty committees at Virginia continued to be made up almost entirely of professors of full rank. Although seated in a precarious position as first permanent chief executive of a tradition-bound university, Alderman succeeded in harmonizing interests of the faculty and gaining their co-operation to such an extent that he held his position for more than a quarter of a century. His successful administration undoubtedly owes at least something to his successful organization of the faculty through a system of standing committees.

Other strong presidents set up faculty committees at their earliest opportunity. William Jewett Tucker at Dartmouth took office in 1893 and soon began what he called "the modernization process" by reorganizing the faculty "in the interest of administrative effectiveness."⁵ One feature of the reorganization was setting up standing committees of the faculty. In his autobiography, Tucker spoke of the faculty doing its business more and more by delegating its powers to committees. "Without doubt," he wrote, "committee service is the bane of a professor's life; but most professors found themselves in this

⁴ Philip Alexander Bruce, *History of the University of Virginia*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1922, Vol. 5, p. 75.

⁵ William Jewett Tucker, *My Generation*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919, pp. 300-301.

dilemma—either to do the drudgery often imposed by the new task, or to be left out of the account in making up the new positions of faculty influence and authority.”⁶

At Union College and Williams College committee appointments appeared within a year after a new president arrived. At Chicago and Stanford they appeared within the first two years of establishment of the new universities. At Catholic University, Washington University, Wisconsin, Nebraska, and Indiana the new presidents had been in office only a year or less when the new lists were published.

At Trinity College (now Duke University), permanent committees of the faculty began to appear in the *Catalogue* in the first year of the presidency of John Franklin Crowell. Crowell attached considerable importance to the *Catalogue*. In his *Personal Recollections* he wrote:

The publication of the college catalogue provided the first major official document of collegiate activity. The Catalogue for 1887-88 was a neat, orderly, and none-too-fulsome description of the organization, constituent factors, curriculum, and courses of instruction.⁷

Comparison of this “document” with previous issues clearly indicates that it was planned as a public-relations instrument and that its authors intended to give the members of the Permanent Committees a certain degree of status and prestige.

A few years later the committee system at Trinity College expanded markedly, again early in the administration of a new president. A statement by President John Carlisle Kilgo's biographer combined with an examination of the list of members of the Trinity committees in 1899 provides insight into a method one president used to give official status to administrative assistants who served primarily as members of the teaching faculty. Biographer Garber writes:

During the early years of his presidency Kilgo personally directed practically all the activities of the College, ranging from the supervision of the janitors, and grading of the campus, to the recommending of honorary degrees. As the College grew, however, Kilgo began to rely especially upon two members of the faculty for assistance in academic matters. These professors were William Preston Few and Robert Lee Flowers.⁸

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 316.

⁷ John Franklin Crowell, *Personal Recollections of Trinity College, North Carolina, 1887-1894*. Durham: Duke University Press, 1939, pp. 57-58.

⁸ Paul Neff Garber, *John Carlisle Kilgo*. Durham: Duke University Press, 1937, pp. 109-110.

Kilgo relied on these two young men to such an extent that in a typical year (1899) they filled 40 per cent of the committee positions. Committee service, apparently, proved useful administrative training, for each of these young men later served as president of the institution: Few from 1910-1940 and Flowers, after 30 years as vice president, as president from 1940-48.

Rapid growth. In many institutions the establishment of faculty committees came in periods of rapid growth. Perhaps they reflect the desire of the governing board or chief executive to keep up with overwhelming administrative burdens without appointing additional administrative officers.

At Brown, Indiana, and Nebraska the addition of faculty committees came in a period of extremely rapid growth. In the five-year period from 1890 to 1895, in which each of these three established committees, enrollment at Brown increased 130 per cent and faculty 277 per cent. At Indiana students increased 106 per cent and faculty 116 per cent. At Nebraska comparable figures were 224 per cent and 273 per cent. At Columbia, Cornell, Duke, Northwestern, California, Minnesota, Virginia, and Washington University also faculty committees rose in the period of greatest increase in enrollment between 1870 and 1910.

Among the institutions used in this study where enrollment data are applicable, in every case but one the number of faculty members increased in the five-year period in which committees were established. In every case but two the student enrollment increased in the five-year period in which committees were established. In 37 per cent of the institutions committees became established in the five-year period of greatest increase in faculty between 1870 and 1915. In 44 per cent, committees became established in the five-year period of greatest growth in enrollment between 1870 and 1915.

The *size* of the college or university at the time committee lists began to appear in the catalogues appears to have no relationship to the time at which the lists began to appear. The *rate* at which faculty and students were increasing, however, bears a striking relationship. Very consistently in periods of greatest growth more institutions established committees. Case studies and statistical analyses combine to demonstrate that committees came into being in periods of extraordinary growth. (See Table I.)

TABLE I
ESTABLISHMENT OF STANDING COMMITTEES OF THE FACULTY
IN THIRTY-FOUR AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES†

Institution	Year communities established	Initial number of committees	Years president in office	Increase in 5-year period	
				Faculty	Students
Brown University	1892	4	3	<i>Per cent</i>	
California Inst. Tech.	1894	5	3	277*	130*
Catholic Univ. of Am.	1899	1	3		
Clark University	1906	9	17		
Columbia University	1893	7	3	234*	182*
Cornell University	1883	3	15	18	369*
Duke University	1888	2	1	60	65*
Harvard University	1890	11	21	68	19
Indiana University	1892	16	1	116	106*
Johns Hopkins Univ.	1885	4	9	58*	83
Mass. Inst. of Tech.	1908	15	1	19	-5
McGill University	1896	4	1		
Northwestern University	1894	13	4	163*	97*
Ohio State University	1902	11	3	20	58
Princeton University	1886	9	18	18	50
Stanford University	1892	15	1		
State Univ. of Iowa	1899	9	0	34	51
Univ. of California	1895	28	5	189*	169*
Univ. of Chicago	1893	9	2		
Univ. of Illinois	1908	14	4	137*	50
Univ. of Michigan	1908	3	37	39	38
Univ. of Minnesota	1893	7	9	286*	140*
Univ. of Nebraska	1892	6	1	273*	224*
Univ. of N. Carolina	1898	11	2	-8	9
Univ. of Pennsylvania	1893	6	12	49	58
Univ. of Texas	1902	24	3		
Univ. of Virginia	1905	16	1	16	49*
Univ. of Wisconsin	1904	14	1	85*	49
Washington University	1909	8	1	46	63*
Yale University	1901	11	2	37	25
Amherst College	1898	13	8	9	-16
Dartmouth College	1893	12	0	63*	34
Union College	1895	7	1	53	116*
Williams College	1903	1	1	47	20

† James Kenneth Munford, "Committees in Higher Education," unpublished dissertation, Stanford University, 1948, pp. 56, 58.

* Indicates greatest percentage of increase for any five-year period between 1870 and 1915.

In regard to the relationship between growth of the institutions and the establishment of faculty committees, one point needs to be kept in mind. Increase in faculty fairly well kept pace with the increase in enrollment, but increase in administrators lagged behind. Both Part-

ridge⁹ and McGrath¹⁰ found that such offices as librarian, vice-president, secretary of the faculty, registrar, and dean were introduced in the same period that faculty committees arose, but in quantity they did not appear to keep pace proportionately with the increase in enrollment. There was just so much work to do that the president had to turn to the faculty or faculty committees to get it done.

Economy of effort. When colleges were small and the faculty did not amount to more than a roomful, faculties customarily acted either individually or as a committee of the whole in deciding and acting on matters of discipline, curriculum, library, admission, athletics, etc. As institutions grew it became more efficient for a few representatives of the whole faculty to act in their stead.

Discussing the rise of committees at Wisconsin President Charles Kendall Adams spoke in 1898 of the necessity of transferring minor business which burdened the General Faculty to committees representing it.¹¹ At Harvard, committees became established at a time when the College Faculty "had grown too large to deal effectively with cases of individual discipline and the large variety of business that came before it."¹² The Administrative Committee set up at the University of Rochester resulted in "saving the time of the faculty."¹³

The transition to what was considered a more efficient system, however, did not come unopposed. An early committee at Cornell University raised a rumpus on the campus. Students had become accustomed to dealing with their professors individually. When a faculty committee interposed itself between themselves and the faculty, they rebelled. President Andrew Dickson White came to the committee's defense. In addressing the student body in May 1883 he made "reply to certain attacks upon the institution":

It is said that the Faculty have departed from the principles of good

⁹ Florence A. Partridge, "Administrative Offices," *Journal of Higher Education*, 6:367-370, October 1935.

¹⁰ Earl James McGrath, "The Evolution of Administrative Offices in Institutions of Higher Education in the United States from 1860 to 1933." Chicago: University of Chicago Libraries, 1938.

¹¹ Charles Kendall Adams, "President's Report," *University of Wisconsin Reports of the Regents and Visitors, 1896-1897, 1897-1898*. Madison: Democrat Printing Co., 1898, p. 13.

¹² Samuel Eliot Morison, *The Development of Harvard University, 1869-1929*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1930, p. xxiv.

¹³ John Rothwell Slater, *Rhees of Rochester*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946, p. 149.

government; and in sundry local attacks have been blamed for . . .

The Absence Committee. Let us have the courage to face this bugbear; let us see whether it is the monster which has been depicted to us.

From the beginning of the institution, we have always required that students make excuses for their absences . . . heretofore each student has presented his excuse to the Professor from whose exercise he was absent. . . . To relieve the great body of individual Professors from this pressure, to give us the means of knowing who are really faithful, the Faculty decided to establish a small committee, the duties to be taken in turn by the Professors, which should sit two or three times a week, and in a spirit judicial but kindly receive any excuses which students had to give. You see that there is no real change of principle involved; it is a simple change in machinery.¹⁴

WHAT DID THEY DO?

The Absence Committee at Cornell had relatives in other institutions. One type of committee that rose rather early on many campuses was one that dealt with infractions of rules. Called variously the Discipline, Absences, Attendance, Rules, Regulations, or College Ethics committee, its primary duty was to relieve the faculty as a whole or individually of the administration of justice. At Cornell the committee relieved the faculty individually of a burdensome task. In small colleges where the faculty usually sat as a group to review infractions, perhaps to interview the accused, and to mete out demerits or other punishment, the new committee relieved them as a group.

Discipline in living quarters has always caused concern. The earliest listed faculty committee I have found in an American college catalogue is a disciplinary committee at Harvard. In 1849, the year Jared Sparks succeeded Edward Everett as president, the *Catalogue* listed for the first time the Parietal Committee. The 1877 *Catalogue* gave its duties:

The proctors and the officers of instruction who reside within the college walls, or in buildings to which the superintendence of the College extends, constitute the Parietal Committee. It is their duty to take cognizance of offenses against good order and decorum, and to attend daily prayers.¹⁵

The *Catalogue* continued to carry this description of duties for

¹⁴ Andrew Dickson White, from a speech reprinted from the *Cornell Era*, publication date not given.

¹⁵ Page 26.

many years. The Funk and Wagnall's *New Standard Dictionary* quoted from it to illustrate one meaning of the word "parietal." In 1892 this committee became the Parietal Board and has continued on into recent years—with more than 100 years of continuous service!

Venerable as it is, the Parietal Committee did not actually constitute the establishment of committees at Harvard. It was an isolated example of a disciplinary committee. Not until 1890 did the *Catalogue* begin to carry a set of standing committees similar to those at other institutions.

Among 34 American colleges and universities whose catalogues were examined, 65 per cent had a Library Committee on their initial lists. By 1910 this percentage increased to 78. Comparable data are not available for the present time, but cursory investigation indicates that this type of committee is still a favorite. It appears to have evolved from a group of faculty members who had an interest in assembling books and making them available to students and faculty. Committee members rotated the duty of keeping watch over the collection, checking books in and out, and handling other details. When trained library specialists came into the picture the committee assumed more of an advisory than an operating function.

Committees to supervise athletics and related activities also have a long history. Cornell's original list included a Gymnasium Council. Johns Hopkins' had a Committee on the Gymnasium. Princeton's had a Committee on Out-Door Sports. Stanford, Indiana, Dartmouth, Union, North Carolina, and Iowa all had athletics committees on their original lists in the 1890's. By 1910 more than half of the catalogues, in the group I examined, included athletics committees. Many of these have continued on through to the present time.

Committees dealing with the catalogue and publications were found almost as frequently as those on athletics. Next in order probably came committees dealing with instruction, curriculum, or courses of study. Charles W. Eliot wrote in *University Administration* (1908):

One of the standing committees of every faculty should be a committee on instruction, whose function is to examine and report all propositions which come from departments concerning courses of instruction.¹⁶

Other committees found frequently in early years include those on

¹⁶ Charles William Eliot, *University Administration*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1908, p. 109.

TABLE II
FACULTY COMMITTEES MOST FREQUENTLY FOUND IN SEVERAL
SAMPLES OF AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES AT
VARIOUS STAGES OF THEIR DEVELOPMENT

Year:	Type of Committee	Order of frequency				
		AAU members and 4 colleges		State teachers colleges†	Teachers colleges§	Liberal Arts colleges
		Initial list*	†			
1883- 1909	1910	1925	1932	1934	1946	
Library	34	32	43	150	110	24
Publications, Catalogue, etc.	1	2	7	10	3	1
Athletics, Gymnasium, etc.	2	5	8	8	4	9
Curriculum, Course of Study, etc.	3	1	2	(2)	2	2
Admission	4	6	4	4	6	3
Lectures, lyceum, entertainment, etc.	5	4	3	7	10	5
Entrance examinations, advanced standing	6	7	5-9	1-13	5	7
Scholarships, etc.	7	9	11	11		
Discipline, rules, etc.	8	8	17	5-14		6
Student activities, social, etc.	9	13	22			
Preparatory schools	10	3	6-10	2-3	1-8	4
Appointment	11	13				
Schedule	12	10	1	6		
Administration	13	11	14	9	7	11

* Members of Association of American Universities (as of 1948) plus Amherst, Dartmouth, Union, and Williams colleges.

† Same list in 1910.

‡ Charles C. Sherrod, *The Administration of State Teachers Colleges through Faculty Committees*. Nashville: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1925.

§ Robert H. Morrison, *Internal Administrative Organization in Teachers Colleges*, TCCE 592. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933, p. 28.

|| James S. Kinder, *The Internal Administration of the Liberal Arts College*, TCCE 597. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934, p. 17.

¶ Random sample selected by taking every tenth institution on the list of colleges approved by the Association of American Universities (1946).

admissions; lectures, commencement, entertainment, or lyceum; entrance examinations and advanced standing; scholarships and charitable funds; student activities; preparatory schools; placement; schedule of classes. (See Table II.)

One notable difference in present-day function: The early day committees were operating, administrating committees; the discipline committee meted out discipline, the library committee loaned books, the athletics committee coached, the schedule committee made out the schedule. Today there is a shift toward employing specialists to carry out the routine duties and leaving the committee in an advisory capacity.

HOW THEY PROSPERED

Among the institutions used as a sample in this study, all that established faculty committees by publishing their names annually in

the catalogue did so before 1910. They were so well established by that time, in fact, that they came in for their share of the censure that was heaped upon college administration in the period immediately preceding World War I.

In 1909 a newly formed Higher Education Association, composed mostly of businessmen, attorneys, and other noncollege people, sought "to improve higher education in the United States," and began publication of *The American College*. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching commissioned the brilliant young co-founder of industrial engineering, Morris Llewellyn Cooke, to write its bulletin number 5, *Academic and Industrial Efficiency*. University deans and presidents and college faculties joined in self-evaluation.

These observers often turned a critical eye on the bumbling, slow-moving faculty committee. Clarence F. Birdseye and his colleagues in the Higher Education Association would have the college authorities throw out "false and archaic methods" and do away with the committee system which "is about as inadequate as it could be." Cooke believed that since college teachers "are men of rare ability who have devoted years to training themselves in a special branch of knowledge" allowing them to work on routine matters outside their special branch of knowledge constituted a loss to the institution. He wrote:

Almost invariably under committee management there is the spectacle of three or more men, experts in their own specialties, all simultaneously wasting precious time in deciding questions outside their own field, which could be better and far more quickly decided by a single expert whose time may be worth less than that of any one of the three or six men on the committee. Modern industrial management seeks to relieve the head men of all possible routine such as is the great bulk of committee work, and so enables them to give their entire time to progress.¹⁷

Economist William M. Williams, writing in *The American College*, declared that "the operation of a university should be conducted in accord with the best principles of modern organization."¹⁸ Dean Frederick B. Keppel of Columbia College wrote:

¹⁷ Morris Llewellyn Cooke, *Academic and Industrial Efficiency*, Bulletin No. 5. New York: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1910, pp. 13-14.

¹⁸ William M. Williams, "University Organization and Accounting," *The American College*, 2:13-19, April 1910, pp. 15-16.

The question today is between administration by faculty committee and so-called functional administration, by officers appointed and paid *ad hoc*. My personal feeling as to this matter is very definite. With routine administration the professor should have just as little as possible to do.¹⁹

Dean Andrew Fleming West of the Princeton University Graduate School defended the committee system, but pointed out dangers:

If, behind the complex of our committees, we do not have the watchful criticism and active cooperation of the whole faculty—if the faculty does not really understand what its agents are doing, or what their measures mean—then the committees are virtually the faculty, and the faculty becomes little more than a listless and dwindling audience. . . . For, unless a faculty actually controls all its parts and agencies, it cannot do its business in the best way, nor can it long maintain its freedom.²⁰

When the Oberlin College faculty published its "Tests of Efficiency" in 1910, it clearly indicated an established place for faculty committees in any institution which desired to be considered efficient. The "Tests" included this one on standing committees:

These will ordinarily be of two kinds, one whose duties are principally of a constructive nature, the other in which they are primarily routine. The former should usually be large committees of representative membership; the latter may generally be small, and should not be more numerous than is necessary, since routine work should be as far as possible in the hands of officers. Where a single committee is charged with duties of both kinds, the greater part of the routine may often be given over to sub-committees with full power.²¹

At about this same time E. B. Andrews, who had established faculty committees at Brown University and had continued their use when he became Chancellor of the University of Nebraska, commented on means of making committee work effective. Among other things he said:

Committees . . . have a right to know the exact nature and limits of [their authority], within which bounds they should . . . be left free

¹⁹ Frederick P. Keppel, *The Undergraduate and His College*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917, pp. 251-252.

²⁰ Andrew Fleming West, *American Liberal Education*, New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1907, pp. 40-41.

²¹ Oberlin College Faculty Committee, "Tests of College Efficiency," *The American College*, 2:35-51, April 1910.

to do the work in their own way without intrusion or supervision, and be supported and defended to the utmost in their findings.²²

By holding firm to their gathering authority, faculty committees warded off the attacks of those who would do away with an administrative instrument which outwardly appeared inefficient and cumbersome. In the past half century, campus committee systems have become firmly entrenched and today occupy a place of prominence in the administration of every college and university.

Some of the same pressures present when committees arose late in the last century, especially the rate of increase in faculty and student body, are present today. Will these same forces today result in a new wave of committeeitis? Or will new means of meeting old problems be found?

²² Elisha Benjamin Andrews, "University Administration," *Educational Review*, 31:217-225, March 1906, p. 221.

Activities and Success of University of Wisconsin Graduates Within Eight Years After Graduation

SR. M. JACINTA MANN, S.C., AND L. J. LINS

IN EVALUATING an educational program, one should be concerned with the educational product, the graduates. In what ways have the lives of these individuals been altered as a result of having had college educational opportunities? What have been their activities since graduation? Has the University prepared them for the occupations which they have pursued? What are the differences in the economic success of graduates in various occupations?

In attempting to secure answers to some of these questions, a questionnaire was sent to a stratified random sample of the men, other than foreign, who had received their first baccalaureate degree from the University of Wisconsin, Madison campus, in June, 1949, and who had done all of their academic work on the Madison campus of the University. The proportional (one-third) random sample was stratified according to the college of major within the University. Of the 305 men selected, 293 replied to the questionnaire; 290 of these replies were usable, representing a 95.1 per cent response from the sample selected.

An eight-page questionnaire¹ was sent to the graduates on September 3, 1957. A follow-up letter was sent to the nonrespondents on September 23; a second follow-up letter and questionnaire were sent to the nonrespondents on October 7 and, about two weeks later, another copy of the questionnaire with a personal letter addressed to each nonrespondent was sent.

LOCATION AND SOCIAL STATUS

The data concerning the size of the community from which the student had come and in which he lives now, indicate the trend of these persons toward the cities. As shown in Table I, 44.2 per cent

¹The complete questionnaire and a discussion of its construction appears in the doctoral dissertation, Sister M. Jacinta Mann, *Relationship Among Certain Variables Associated with College and Post-College Success*, on file in the Library, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

TABLE I
SIZE OF COMMUNITY OF ALUMNI BEFORE AND
AFTER GRADUATION

Size of Community	Before		Now	
	No.	%	No.	%
City 100,000 or more	47	16.2	106	36.6
City 40,000 to 100,000	72	24.8	46	15.9
City 10,000 to 40,000	43	14.8	77	26.5
City 5,000 to 10,000	24	8.3	19	6.5
Town 2,500 to 5,000	27	9.3	19	6.5
Town less than 2,500	33	11.4	15	5.2
Non-farm rural area	8	2.8	4	1.4
On a farm	36	12.4	4	1.4
TOTAL	290	100.0	290	100.0

of the group had come to the University from communities with populations of less than 10,000; only 21 per cent were located in communities of this size eight years after graduation. Only 16.2 per cent of the graduates came from cities of 100,000 or over; 36.6 per cent are located in cities of this size. While 36 individuals were located on farms at the time of entering the University, only four have returned to farms.

The extent to which the University had educated the young men of Wisconsin only to have them leave to use their knowledge elsewhere is indicated in Table II. While 85.2 per cent lived in Wisconsin at the time of entering the University, only 50 per cent were located in Wisconsin eight years after graduation. When these persons entered

TABLE II
PLACE OF RESIDENCE OF ALUMNI BEFORE AND
AFTER GRADUATION

Residence	As Freshmen		Now	
	No.	%	No.	%
Wisconsin	247	85.2	145	50.0
Other States	43	14.8	140	48.3
U. S. Territories	*	*	1	.3
Foreign Countries	*	*	4	1.4
TOTAL	290	100.0	290	100.0

* The sample was purposely chosen to include only American male graduates.

as freshmen, they had come from 13 states; they now are located in 31 states and five foreign countries or U. S. territories. Although none of the individuals originally lived in the Western states, over 11 per cent found employment in states west of the Rocky Mountains.

As students, 32 per cent of these graduates were married; eight years after graduation, 91 per cent were married. Of those who are married, 90 per cent have at least one child; 40 per cent have at least three children.

A comparison was made of the social status of the parental home and the social status of the graduate's present home. The graduate was asked to circle the Y or N (Yes or No) before each statement according to whether or not the statement was descriptive of the parental home during most of the person's high school years and to

TABLE III
SOCIAL STATUS OF ALUMNI BEFORE AND AFTER GRADUATION

Measure	Before	After
Possible Range of Scores	18	16
Actual Range of Scores	17	10
Mean	9.79	10.70
Standard Deviation	3.44	1.75
Coefficient of Variation	35.15	16.35

circle the y or n after the statement according to whether or not the statement describes the home in which the graduate now lives. The score obtained is the number of Y responses.

The items were adapted from Harrison G. Gough's "Home Index"² with additional revisions received in personal communication with Dr. Gough. Each item used was changed from an interrogative to a descriptive statement.

There is indication that the graduates are now quite homogeneous in social status. Table III gives evidence of both increased social status over the parental homes and of greater homogeneity than was true of the parental homes. The mean of the present scores was larger even though the possible range was smaller. The standard deviation of the present scores is smaller.

Since the possible ranges of social status scores before attending the

² Harrison G. Gough, "A Short Social Status Inventory," *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, 40:52-56, January 1949.

University and after being employed are different, one cannot make a direct comparison of the means and standard deviations. However, the coefficients of variation differ sufficiently to indicate that, no matter what the differences in social status were before attending the University, the persons eight years after graduation are quite alike socially.

To obtain measures of citizenship and cultural interests and participation, Pace's³ activity scales were used with slight variation. The items were categorized into "Political Activities," "Civic Activities,"

TABLE IV
DISTRIBUTION BY SCHOOL OF MEAN NUMBER OF
CITIZENSHIP AND CULTURAL ACTIVITIES

School or College	Citizenship Activities	Cultural Activities
Letters and Science	11	9
Education	12	9
Engineering	11	7
Agriculture	10	7
Commerce	11	7
Total	11	8

"Music," and "Literature or Drama." The two former are considered as measures of citizenship and the two latter as measures of cultural interests.

The mean number of citizenship activities in which the group participated was 11, while the mean number of cultural activities was 8. In applying a "t-test" for the significance of differences between means, it was found that the participation in citizenship activities is not only greater but differs significantly at less than the .001 level from the participation in cultural activities.

There is variation in these activities among the graduates according to the school or college in which the student was registered at the University (Table IV). An analysis of variance of the cultural activities indicates a real difference between participation by graduates of the various schools or colleges; one would expect a difference this great by chance less than once in 1000 samples. The graduates of the College of Letters and Science and School of Education participate in music and

³C. Robert Pace, "What Kind of Citizens Do College Graduates Become?" *Journal of General Education*, 3:197-202, April 1949.

literature or drama activities to a greater extent than do the graduates of the School of Commerce and Colleges of Engineering and Agriculture. All means are significantly different at at least the five per cent level except for the means of the School of Education and College of Agriculture.

An analysis of variance of the citizenship activities, when graduates are divided by school or college, indicates that differences are not significant. Thus the graduates of the various schools or colleges are less variable in political and civic activities than they are in cultural activities.

TABLE V
DISTRIBUTION BY SCHOOL OF TYPES OF
HIGHER DEGREES RECEIVED

Degree	Letters and Science		Education		Engineering		Agriculture		Commerce		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Ph.D.	7	6.4	—	—	2	3.3	3	9.7	—	—	12	4.1
M.D.	12	11.0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	4.1
LL.B.	7	6.4	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4.5	10	3.5
Master's	7	6.4	14	60.9	5	8.3	2	6.5	3	4.5	31	10.7
Some Work	19	17.5	5	21.7	9	15.0	8	25.8	6	9.0	47	16.2
No Work	57	52.3	4	17.4	44	73.4	18	58.0	55	82.0	178	61.4
Total	109	100.0	23	100.0	60	100.0	31	100.0	67	100.0	290	100.0

EDUCATION BEYOND THE BACCALAUREATE DEGREE

For most, the bachelor's degree was a terminal degree (Table V). Over 61 per cent had no additional formal education; 22 per cent received a second or third degree with four per cent of the total earning the Ph.D., four per cent earning the M.D., three per cent the LL.B., and 11 per cent a master's degree.

Graduates of the School of Commerce and College of Engineering have had the least academic work beyond the baccalaureate degree, only 18 per cent and 27 per cent respectively having had additional formal education. Graduates of the School of Education, however, were quite inclined to continue; 61 per cent having earned a master's degree and an additional 22 per cent having taken some work after their initial graduation. These differences, at least in part, are due probably to the relationship in the teaching profession between salary level and advancement and postbaccalaureate education. It is interesting to note that none of the education graduates has taken a degree above the master's level; for most education graduates, the master's degree may be the terminal degree.

OCCUPATIONS AND TIME WORKED

The present work of most of these alumni is little related to what occupational plans may have been made prior to entering the University. Only about one-third of the group are in the work they planned to be in when they entered the University; about one-third made their vocational decision while attending the University; and the other third made the decision after graduation.

Only 43 per cent are working today in the field in which they did their college work; 40 per cent are in fields related to their college major; and 17 per cent are in a quite different field (See Table VI). The change in vocational area is most prevalent among graduates of

TABLE VI
PERCENTAGE OF GRADUATES BY COLLEGE OR SCHOOL
FOLLOWING OCCUPATION FOR WHICH EDUCATED

School	No.	Same Field	Related Field	Different Field
Letters and Science	109	39.4	34.9	25.7
Education	23	43.5	30.4	26.1
Engineering	60	48.3	43.3	8.4
Agriculture	31	35.5	54.8	9.7
Commerce	67	49.3	41.8	8.9
Total	290	43.4	40.0	16.6

the School of Education and College of Letters and Science with over one-fourth being in work different from their collegiate field.

In spite of the fact that the occupational decisions were slow in coming, the graduates apparently have kept working. All but a third of them have been employed full time during the entire eight years following graduation. Since nearly 39 per cent of them have at least some additional education, one can safely conclude that there has been very little time, if any, when they were actually idle.

SALARIES AND JOB SATISFACTIONS

The scale for appraising job satisfaction was adapted, with the authors' permissions, from Hoppock's⁴ "Job Satisfaction Blank Number 5" and from Landy's⁵ "Occupational Adjustment Study" forms.

⁴ Robert Hoppock, *Job Satisfaction*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953.

⁵ Edward Landy, "Occupational Adjustment and the School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 24:1-151, November 1940.

The order of the options of the first two items, on the questionnaire for this study, was randomized. Because of the length of the options of the other items, the order of options was merely reversed in the second item of the last three. These changes were made in an attempt to avoid the dangers of response set.

In Tables VII-IX, salaries, rates of salary gain, and job satisfactions are distributed in various ways. The salaries are in nearly all cases for the year 1956. In Table VII are recorded the means, standard deviations, and coefficients of variation for the graduates of the various schools or colleges and for the total group. Since the salary means differ so widely, the coefficient of variation is used as an index to show how the graduates of the several schools vary in amount of earned income.

The data show that graduates of the various schools do differ. It is clear that the graduates of the School of Education are not only least well paid on the average but they are also least variable in this respect. The Engineers share this homogeneity, but their mean annual income is definitely higher (by over \$2,000) than that of teachers. The mean salaries of the graduates of the Colleges of Letters and Science, of Engineering, and of the School of Commerce do not differ greatly. The mean salary of the graduates of the College of Agriculture is more than \$1,000 higher than for graduates of the School of Education and nearly \$1,000 lower than any of the first three colleges and school mentioned.

The mean income for graduates of the College of Letters and Science is distorted since the M.D.'s, whose mean salary is substantially higher than any other occupational group, is included. As the coefficient of variation for this college reveals, the salaries also are the most variable of any of the groups. This is understandable since it includes members of a wide range of professions.

Table VIII shows the wide range of incomes, from \$1,800 to \$26,500, and that the median income is \$7,000. The variation in the total group is apparent also from the coefficient of variation (Table VII); the mean income is \$7,934. On no other trait discussed is the group more variable than in this respect.

The difference between the mean and median values is to be expected since the distribution of salary is somewhat skewed to the right. The relatively few very large incomes tend to increase the mean but do not equally influence the median.

Table VIII affords an opportunity for a general comparison of the

TABLE VII

DISTRIBUTION BY SCHOOL OR COLLEGE FROM WHICH GRADUATED
OF MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND COEFFICIENTS OF
VARIATION OF SALARIES, SALARY GAINS,
AND JOB SATISFACTIONS

School or College	No.	Salary			Salary Gain*			Job Satisfaction		
		Mean	S.D.	C.V.	Mean	S.D.	C.V.	Mean	S.D.	C.V.
Letters and Science	109	\$8,296	\$4,517	54.4	18	17	93.1	21	3.1	15.1
Engineering	60	8,290	2,795	33.7	18	8	47.8	20	2.3	11.3
Commerce	67	8,075	3,234	40.0	21	22	102.3	20	3.0	14.8
Agriculture	31	7,081	2,981	42.1	17	28	164.8	20	3.5	17.7
Education	23	6,030	1,850	30.7	16	10	64.9	21	2.0	10.0
Total	290	\$7,934	\$3,656	46.1	18	18	97.8	20	2.9	14.3

* Per cent gain per year of present salary over first salary.

graduates in the various occupational groups. It is interesting to note that nearly two-thirds of the group are now located in business occupations while only one-third are in the professions. In general, the men in business receive higher salaries than do the professional men. The median incomes of the two groups differ by \$1,100.

The data of Table IX point up the economic advantages of one advanced degree over another and suggest that additional education

TABLE VIII

DISTRIBUTION BY TYPES OF EMPLOYMENT OF SALARY RANGE,
MEDIAN SALARY, MEDIAN SALARY GAIN, AND
JOB SATISFACTION SCORES OF ALUMNI

Type of Employment	No.	%	Salary Range	Median Salary	Salary Gain*	Median Job Satisfaction
Professions						
Medicine	13	4.5	\$5,000-26,500	\$14,000	20	23
Artists and writers	3	1.0	6,500-17,000	12,000	26	22
Science	16	5.5	3,800-15,000	7,650	15	21
Law	7	2.4	4,400-17,000	7,000	15	21
Government	24	8.3	4,000-8,000	5,850	10	20
Education	36	12.4	3,100-8,500	5,450	11	20
Ministry	2	.7	3,400-3,600	3,500	3	24
Total Professions	101	34.8	\$3,100-26,500	\$ 6,200	12	21
Business						
Construction	14	4.8	\$4,000-25,000	\$ 8,600	18	20
Mining	5	1.7	7,300-11,000	8,200	17	21
Merchandising	32	11.0	4,500-8,200	7,950	13	22
Manufacturing	71	24.5	4,800-25,000	7,800	17	21
Agriculture	8	2.8	1,800-8,200	6,700	8	21
Service business	10	3.5	4,400-10,000	6,300	16	22
Finance	36	12.4	4,200-12,000	6,000	15	23
Transportation and utilities	13	4.5	4,400-14,500	5,600	16	21
Total Business	189	65.2	\$1,800-25,000	\$ 7,300	16	21
Total	290	100.0	\$1,800-26,500	\$ 7,000	15	21

* Per cent gain per year of present salary over first salary.

in the short range does not necessarily mean a much greater salary. The monetary return after completion of higher degrees differs with the degree attained. The degrees, in rank order from the highest to the lowest median income of their holders, are M.D., Ph.D., LL.B., and master's degree. The M.D.'s have incomes very much greater than any of the others.

Those who have labored for higher degrees hoping for greater monetary reward might be concerned that the median salary of the 178 alumni who have had no extra formal education, is as high as it is. It is second only to that of the Ph.D.'s. However, two things

TABLE IX

DISTRIBUTION BY AMOUNT OF GRADUATE EDUCATION OF
MEDIAN SALARY, MEDIAN SALARY GAIN, AND
JOB SATISFACTION SCORES OF ALUMNI

Education	No.	Median Salary	Salary Gain*	Median Job Satisfaction
Ph.D.	12	\$ 7,650	10	21
M.D.	12	14,000	16	23
LL.B.	10	6,900	20	21
Master's	31	5,800	14	21
Some Work	47	5,500	12	21
No Work	178	7,200	15	21
Total	290	\$ 7,000	15	21

* Per cent gain per year of present salary over first salary.

should be kept in mind in interpreting this figure. First, 73 per cent of the relatively high salaried engineers are in this group, and second, since these alumni have taken no time off to go to school, they have had several extra years in which to secure salary increases.

Tables VII-IX include a summary of the data on salary gain. The index of salary gain used here is the per cent gain per year of present salary over first salary. It can be seen from these tables that there are some sharp differences in salary gain among the various groups. Not only are the teachers earning less money on the average than the graduates of any other school or college but their gains in salary are at a slower rate than for any other group and are, with the exception of engineering graduates, the least variable of any group. The commerce graduates have the greatest mean salary gain. There is also a high variation in their gain; however, the agriculture graduates show the greatest variation in gains.

From Table VIII one notes that, in general, the man in business has greater average salary gains than the professional man does. It also appears that of all the professional people, the ministers, government workers, and educators have the slowest salary gains while doctors and artists have average annual increases equal respectively to 20 per cent and 26 per cent of their first salaries. Among the businessmen, the salaries of the agriculturists and salesmen rise most slowly in percentage gain while salaries of the construction workers gain most rapidly.

Salary changes have been noted. It is interesting to consider likewise whether or not the groups are really satisfied with their work. All of the distributions of job satisfaction scores (Tables VII-IX) show that average scores are high. The perfect score attainable on the scale used was 25; average scores for the various groups range from 20 to 24. It is of some interest to note that the teachers are the least variable in job satisfaction.

REVIEW OF FINDINGS

This section presents very brief statements relative to the sample of male Americans who received their baccalaureate degrees from the University of Wisconsin in June, 1949.

1. The trend of the group was to move to the city or to larger cities than that of their parental homes.
2. Over 40 per cent of the graduates who came from Wisconsin homes have moved away from Wisconsin; the exodus has been largely westward.
3. The graduates generally are quite homogeneous with respect to social status considering that they are quite heterogeneous with respect to economic status. Their education is apparently responsible for the homogeneity of social status since they came to the University as a very heterogeneous group in this respect.
4. Most of the graduates are married (91 per cent) and have several children.
5. The members of the group differ significantly in their participation in activities of a political-civic nature and of a cultural nature. They have little interest in music and literature in comparison with their interest in civic and political endeavors.
6. Graduates of the School of Education and College of Letters

and Science participate in cultural activities to a greater degree than do the graduates of the other University colleges and schools.

7. The graduates of the School of Education surpass all other groups in the percentage who pursued a higher degree. However, though 61 per cent of education graduates earned a master's degree, this may be a terminal degree for most of them since none have been granted the Ph.D. degree.

8. On the average, the businessmen had a higher earning power than the professional men by \$1,100 per year. However, the highest average salaried were the doctors of medicine and the lowest were the teachers and ministers; these are all professional men.

9. Generally, the graduates were well-satisfied with their occupations and are homogeneous in this respect.

10. The teachers are, in most respects, the most homogeneous of the groups though they are at either of the extremes with respect to most of the variables studied. They are low in income and rate of gain in income but are among the highest with respect to social status, citizenship activities, cultural interests, and additional education.

11. The present work of most of these graduates is little related to the occupational plans they may have had prior to entering the University; only about one-third are in the work they planned for themselves before entering the University. About one-third made their vocational decision while attending the University. The other third made the decision after receiving the baccalaureate degree.

12. Only 43 per cent of the graduates claim to be working today in the field in which they did their college work; 40 per cent are in fields related to their college major; and 17 per cent are in a quite different field. Over one-fourth of the graduates of the School of Education and College of Letters and Science are in work different from their collegiate field.

A Study of Some Potential Selective Admissions Criteria

DAVID G. DANSKIN AND DONALD P. HOYT

“JUST HOW GOOD does my son have to be to get into Wissahickie U.?" Or, as the question is usually worded, "What does my son have to do to get into your school?" Regardless of how it's asked, this is an all too familiar question to admissions officers and registrars these days. For years, directors of admissions at private colleges and universities have heard this query, but now it is being put to those at publicly-supported institutions more frequently.

College admission has become a subject of absorbing national interest. Newspapers, magazines, radio, and television have added to our national vocabulary such phrases as "the coming tidal wave of students" and "the closing college door." The message seems to be that today's elementary and secondary pupils will have difficulty getting admitted to the hallowed halls unless they are geniuses and/or athletes.

What are the facts? They are all too familiar to the readers of this *Journal*—college enrollments are jumping from 2,659,000 in 1950 to four, five, and possibly six million by 1965. The quantitative increase in the educational task of colleges sounds overwhelming.

Such predictions are concerned only with the number of students entering college. If all those who begin eventually graduate, then colleges would be faced primarily with the tremendous problem of expanding facilities and staff. But of all those enrolling in college, over 40 per cent fail to graduate—a tremendous drain on the resources of American colleges and universities. The need, then, is not only one of finding more space and staff, but also of screening out the large number of students who fail to graduate.

PROBLEM

College and university administrators are wrestling with the problem of how to identify students who can make the grade in college. As a start, the Counseling Center staff at Kansas State University has taken an exploratory look at the efficiency of some possible selective admissions criteria.

The purposes of a selective admissions program are twofold: (1)

to identify and refuse admission to those applicants who would be dropped because of low grades, and (2) to identify and admit those applicants who will graduate. The goal of the exploratory study reported here is to identify selective admissions criteria that will accomplish these two purposes at KSU. However, the results may be of interest to those at other schools considering the problem of admissions criteria. Specifically, the following questions are investigated:

- (1) What selection criteria would have refused admission to those students who earned a grade point average (GPA) of 1.69 or less within two years at KSU?
- (2) What selection criteria would have admitted those students who maintained a GPA of 1.70 or better for at least two years at KSU?

GPA of 1.70 was used as a cut-off point because this is the minimum required for graduation, using a 4.0 system. Two-year GPA was used as a measure of the efficiency of selection criteria because (a) previous studies had shown that cumulative GPA's for the freshman and sophomore years are excellent predictors of four-year GPA's, and (b) the 1956 freshman class had been the subject of considerable study by the Counseling Center, the necessary data had been collected and punched on IBM cards, and this class had completed two years at KSU.

It is not the purpose of this research to offer recommendations or to make decisions. Rather, the goal is to present, in a preliminary manner, some of the data which might well be considered in exploring the feasibility of a selective admissions program.

SAMPLE

All students included in this study were drawn from those entering as freshmen in 1956. Two broad groups were studied. First, the "persist" group, included those who were still enrolled at KSU in September, 1958, and who had a two-year cumulative GPA of 1.70 or better. Effective selective admissions criteria would admit this group to college. Second, the "drop" group, was composed of students who were no longer enrolled in KSU by September, 1958, and who had earned cumulative GPA's of 1.69 or less. Effective selective admissions criteria would refuse admission to this group.

Eliminated from the sample were a small number of men enrolled in Home Economics and women enrolled in Engineering or Agricul-

TABLE I
NUMBER OF PERSIST AND DROP STUDENTS
IN EACH OF FIVE SUBSAMPLES

	Persist		Drop	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Agriculture	77	—	68	—
Arts and Sciences	139	104	122	23
Engineering	204	—	109	—
Home Economics	—	75	—	25

ture. In addition, two other groups of students were not considered: (a) those who were still enrolled in September, 1958, whose cumulative GPA's were less than 1.70 (71 men and 4 women); and (b) those who were not enrolled in September, 1958, whose cumulative GPA's were 1.70 or higher (158 men and 147 women). These students were eliminated because of the hazards in assigning them validly to either the persist or the drop criterion groups.

Subdivisions were made of the "persist" and "drop" samples according to sex and the school in which the student originally enrolled. Table I describes these sub-samples and gives the number of students contained in each.

CRITERIA

Potential predictors of academic future are of various types, including measures of scholastic aptitude, achievement, interests, and motivation or other personality characteristics related to academic success. For this study, it was decided to investigate only those measures which previous research had suggested as most promising and which would seem to have a high probability of acceptance by the public as "reasonable" prediction measures. Therefore, personality test scores, interest test scores, and English achievement test scores were not used. This left the American Council on Education *Psychological Examination* for all students (ACE), a "special" aptitude test (*Ohio State Psychological Examination* for Arts and Sciences students, *Pre-Engineering Ability Test* for Engineering students, and *Iowa Test of Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Natural Sciences* for Agriculture students), the high school rank (HSR), and grades at KSU (GPA). Combinations using the ACE, special aptitude tests, and HSR will be referred to as "pre-admissions" criteria; combinations using GPA will be referred to as "post-admissions" criteria.

Having decided upon which predictive measures to investigate, it was necessary to choose specific "cutting points" for each measure below which applicants would be denied admission. In the absence of complete statistical information with respect to the individual predictors and their interrelationships, these choices were guided by clinical experience and common sense. The following choices were made for this investigation:

Pre-admissions Criteria

1. High School Rank (HSR)
2. ACE

Cutting Point

Upper half of h.s. class ($HSR \geq 50$)
50th percentile or higher, KSU norms.
($ACE \geq 50$)

3. "Special" Aptitude (Ohio, PEAT, Iowa)
4. HSR and ACE
5. HSR and "Special" Aptitude
6. ACE and "Special" Aptitude

50th percentile or higher, KSU norms.
(Special Aptitude ≥ 50)
 $HSR \geq 50$ and/or $ACE \geq 50$
 $HSR \geq 50$ and/or Special Aptitude ≥ 50
 $ACE \geq 25$ and/or Special Aptitude ≥ 25

Post-admissions Criteria

1. 1st semester GPA
2. 1st semester GPA
3. 1st semester GPA and ACE
4. 1st semester GPA and ACE
5. 1st semester GPA and "Special" Aptitude
6. 1st semester GPA and "Special" Aptitude

Cutting Point

1.70 (GPA ≥ 1.70)
1.50 (GPA ≥ 1.50)
GPA ≥ 1.70 and/or ACE ≥ 50
GPA ≥ 1.50 and/or ACE ≥ 50
GPA ≥ 1.70 and/or Special Apt. ≥ 50

GPA ≥ 1.50 and/or Special Apt. ≥ 50

RESULTS

Pre-admissions Criteria

Table II presents data on the efficiency of pre-admissions criteria in identifying Persists and Drops. The number of students involved varies among the criteria, because of incomplete data.

Table II reads: If only those applicants in the top half of their graduating high school class had been enrolled ($HSR \geq 50$), 370 of the Persist group (with a GPA ≥ 1.70) would have been admitted and 48 would have been denied admission. Of those in the Drop group (with a GPA ≤ 1.69) 88 would have been admitted and 112 would have been refused admission.

The two crucial entries in Table II are the "Persist-Denied Admission" and the "Drop-Admitted." Each of these entries would be zero with perfect selective admissions criteria. That is, ideal selection criteria refuse admission to *no* Persists and admit *no* Drops.

How effective are these pre-admissions criteria at identifying Drops and Persists in the five groups studied?

1. None of the criteria make 100 per cent accurate predictions. All admitted some Drops and denied admission to some Persists.
2. The single criteria (HSR, ACE, and special aptitude tests) are most effective at screening out Drops. However, these three criteria refused admission to one-sixth to one-third of the Persists.
3. The dual criteria of HSR combined with either ACE or special aptitude tests are most effective at identifying and admitting Persists.

TABLE II
EFFICACY OF PRE-ADMISSIONS CRITERIA AT IDENTIFYING
PERSISTS AND DROPS

Selection Criteria		Admit	Deny Admission
HSR \geq 50	Persist	370	48
	Drop	88	112
ACE \geq 50	Persist	403	196
	Drop	88	259
Spec. apt. \geq 50	Persist	360	152
	Drop	86	222
Either ACE \geq 50 or HSR \geq 50	Persist	509	29
	Drop	138	89
Either spec. apt. \geq 50 or HSR \geq 50	Persist	436	20
	Drop	132	80
Either ACE \geq 25 or spec. apt. \geq 25	Persist	491	31
	Drop	220	94

Entrance requirements which require of students either an $HSR \geq 50$ or $ACE \geq 50$ admit all but 29 of 538 Persists (HSR and/or special aptitude admit all but 20 of 456 Persists). However, such criteria also admit nearly two-thirds of the Drops. The dual criteria of $ACE \geq 25$ or special aptitude tests ≥ 25 are rather ineffective in that they fail to screen out a very large number of Drops.

How superior are these pre-admissions criteria to current KSU admissions policies in terms of per cent of entering students who graduate and in terms of Persists denied admission? Table III reports such a comparison.

Table III reads: If only students with a HSR ≥ 50 are admitted, 80.8 per cent would maintain a 1.70 or better GPA for two years and probably go on to graduate as compared with 67.6 per cent if there were no selection. Such a criterion misses 14.8 per cent of the Persists versus no misses if everyone is admitted. The first and third columns in Table III would be 100 per cent and 0.0 per cent with perfect selection. That is, with ideal selection criteria, 100 per cent of those admitted would graduate and no Persists would be denied admission.

As indicated earlier, the 305 students who dropped with GPA's ≥ 1.70 are not included in the percentages reported in Table III. If included, this group would reduce the percentages in columns 1 and 2 by one-fourth to one-third. However, as a group, one would want to

TABLE III
PERCENTAGES OF TOTALS FOR PRE-ADMISSIONS CRITERIA

	Graduation Rate		Persisters Denied Admission	
	Selection	No Selection	Selection	No Selection
HSR ≥ 50	80.8	67.6	14.8	0.0
ACE ≥ 50	82.1	63.3	32.7	0.0
Spec. apt. $\geq 50\text{th}\text{ile}$	80.7	62.4	29.7	0.0
ACE $\geq 50\text{th}\text{ile}$ or HSR ≥ 50	78.7	70.3	5.4	0.0
Spec. apt. $\geq 50\text{th}\text{ile}$ or HSR ≥ 50	76.8	68.3	4.4	0.0
ACE $\geq 25\text{th}\text{ile}$ or Spec. apt. $\geq 25\text{th}\text{ile}$	69.1	62.4	5.9	0.0

admit these students, as they have the ability to maintain a GPA ≥ 1.70 . Further, many do not leave school entirely, but simply transfer from KSU to another college, or go into the service and then return to college.

An inspection of Table III suggests:

1. None of the criteria make 100 per cent correct predictions.
2. The use of selection criteria leads to a higher percentage of graduates than when no selection takes place.
3. HSR combined with ACE or special aptitude tests come as close as any of the pre-admissions criteria to meeting the purposes of a selective admissions program—admit Persists and deny admission to Drops.

Post-admissions Criteria

In addition to studying pre-admissions criteria, the predictive power of post-admissions variables was investigated. Psychological research has shown that first semester GPA is one of the best predictors of subsequent grades. Table IV reports data on the efficiency of first semester GPA alone and in combination with test scores as selective admissions criteria.

1. None of the post-admissions criteria permit 100 per cent ac-

TABLE IV
EFFICACY OF POST-ADMISSIONS CRITERIA AT IDENTIFYING
PERSISTS AND DROPS

Selection Criteria		Admit	Deny Admission
1st Semester GPA \geq 1.70	Persist	581	18
	Drop	33	314
1st Semester GPA \geq 1.50	Persist	590	9
	Drop	75	272
Either 1st Semester GPA \geq 1.70 or ACE \geq 50	Persist	590	9
	Drop	104	243
Either 1st Semester GPA \geq 1.50 or ACE \geq 50	Persist	595	4
	Drop	134	213
Either 1st Semester GPA \geq 1.70 or spec. apt. \geq 50	Persist	513	10
	Drop	101	208
Either 1st Semester GPA \geq 1.50 or spec. apt. \geq 50	Persist	519	5
	Drop	126	184

curate predictions. However, they come much closer than pre-admissions criteria to meeting the purposes of selective admissions.

2. First semester GPA alone is most effective at screening out Drop students. First semester GPA \geq 1.70 refuses admission to all but 33 of 347 Drops and first semester GPA \geq 1.50 screens out all but 75 of the 347 Drops. In addition, these criteria admit all but 18 and 9, respectively, of the 599 Persists.

3. Dual criteria are most effective at identifying and admitting potential Persists. With these samples, first semester GPA \geq 1.50 combined with test scores admits all but 4 or 5 of the 599 Persists.

4. Table IV points up the dilemma faced by any selective admissions program. Relatively high criteria screen out nearly all Drops at the expense of a few Persists, leaving a student body of generally high

ability; lower criteria screen out fewer Persists, but do so by admitting more Drops, leaving a student body of lower ability, on the average. For example, a comparison of first semester $GPA \geq 1.70$ with the dual criteria of either first semester $GPA \geq 1.50$ or $ACE \geq 50$ shows that to admit 14 more Persists it is necessary to admit 101 more Drop students.

Clearly, one cannot have his cake and eat it, too. There is a direct relationship between the general graduation rate and the percentage of those denied admission who would have succeeded. Decisions made with respect to this dilemma will probably be based on the educational philosophy of the institution. William James's famous characterization of people as "tender-minded" or "tough-minded" might well describe two extremes in educational philosophy. The "tender-minded" will want to keep the percentage of persisters denied admission to a minimum, and so would admit 115 students in order to graduate 14. The "tough-minded" will want to maximize the graduation rate, and so will deny admission to all 115.

Table V gives the percentage of those admitted who graduate and

TABLE V
PERCENTAGES OF TOTALS FOR SELECTIVE ADMISSIONS CRITERIA

	Graduation Rate		Persisters Denied Admission	
	Selection	No Selection	Selection	No Selection
Pre-admissions Criteria				
HSR ≥ 50	80.8	67.6	14.8	0.0
ACE ≥ 50	82.1	63.2	32.7	0.0
Spec. apt. ≥ 50	80.7	62.4	29.7	0.0
ACE ≥ 50 or HSR ≥ 50	78.7	65.6	5.4	0.0
Spec. apt. ≥ 50 or HSR ≥ 50	76.8	68.3	4.4	0.0
ACE ≥ 25 or Spec. apt. ≥ 25	69.1	62.4	5.9	0.0
Post-admissions Criteria				
1st Sem. GPA ≥ 1.70	94.6	63.3	3.0	0.0
1st Sem. GPA ≥ 1.50	88.7	63.3	1.5	0.0
1st Sem. GPA ≥ 1.70 or ACE ≥ 50	85.0	63.3	1.5	0.0
1st Sem. GPA ≥ 1.50 or ACE ≥ 50	81.6	63.3	0.7	0.0
1st Sem. GPA ≥ 1.70 or Spec. apt. ≥ 50	83.6	62.9	1.9	0.0
1st Sem. GPA ≥ 1.50 or Spec. apt. ≥ 50	80.5	62.8	1.0	0.0

the percentage of Persists denied admission for all criteria, as compared with no selection. Table V includes the data given earlier in Table III (labeled "Pre-admissions Criteria" in Table V) for an easier comparison of all criteria studied.

Table V points up succinctly that first semester GPA alone, or in combination with test scores, is by far the most efficient of the selection criteria studied. The dual goals of a successful admission program can be summarized as (a) maximizing the figures in Column 1, and (b) minimizing those of Column 3. Clearly, post-admissions criteria have a wide advantage over pre-admissions criteria in these regards.

DISCUSSION

The results of this exploratory study of selective admissions criteria suggest several procedures for selecting students at KSU. The three presented apply chiefly to KSU, but may have some relevance for other schools.

A straightforward plan might be to continue admitting students as in the past, but put everyone on a first semester $\text{GPA} \geq 1.70$ (or ≥ 1.50) probation. Then, drop those students who fail to achieve such a GPA at the end of their first semester. Present dismissal policy permits a freshman who earns at least a 1.3 after two semesters to continue in school for at least two more semesters. The plan suggested above would eliminate such students much earlier, and thus raise the average quality of students much earlier. The chief drawback to the plan is that some students ultimately earning $\text{GPA}'s \geq 1.70$ would be dismissed (between 9 and 18 out of 599). A plan such as this would get support from the "tough-minded" educational philosophers.

A second plan would be one which selects on pre-admissions criteria, with a provision that those turned down could be admitted by getting acceptable grades in summer school courses (or, possibly, extension work). For example, admit those applicants who have either an $\text{HSR} \geq 50$ or $\text{ACE} \geq 50$ percentile. Those who do not meet these standards (those graduating in the bottom half of their high school class and scoring below the 50th percentile on the ACE) would be admitted upon earning a $\text{GPA} \geq 1.50$ or ≥ 1.70 in summer school while carrying a reasonably heavy load.

A third plan could be a combination of these two. (a) Admit applicants meeting the HSR or ACE standards and put them on first semester GPA probation. At the end of the first semester, drop those

with substandard GPA's. Those dropped could earn readmission if they made a $\text{GPA} \geq 1.70$ in summer school. (b) Those failing to meet the HSR or ACE standards would be admitted on $\text{GPA} \geq 1.70$ probation after earning acceptable summer school grades. The appeal of these last two plans is that only those students with the best chance of graduating would be selected and the few potential drop students would be screened out early for failing to maintain an acceptable GPA. Thus, students at all levels from entering freshmen on would be of relatively high academic ability. These latter two plans probably would entice those leaning towards the "tender-minded" educational philosophy.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the efficiency of various selective admissions criteria at: (1) identifying and refusing admission to those students who dropped from college within two years with $\text{GPA}'s \leq 1.69$, and (2) identifying and admitting those students who maintained $\text{GPA}'s \geq 1.70$ for two years.

Five samples of students were drawn from freshmen entering in the fall of 1956—men in Agriculture, men in Arts and Sciences, women in Arts and Sciences, men in Engineering, and women in Home Economics. Each of these five samples was further divided into two groups: those who dropped within two years with a $\text{GPA} \leq 1.69$ (Drops), and those who persisted in school for two years and maintained a $\text{GPA} \geq 1.70$ (Persists).

The selection criteria studied included various combinations of $\text{HSR} \geq 50$, $\text{ACE} \geq 25$ percentile and ≥ 50 percentile, "special" aptitude tests ≥ 25 percentile and ≥ 50 percentile (pre-admissions criteria) and combinations of first semester $\text{GPA} \geq 1.50$ and ≥ 1.70 with $\text{ACE} \geq 50$ percentile and "special" aptitude tests ≥ 50 percentile (post-admissions criteria).

Within the limits of the samples studied, the following conclusions seem justified:

1. Post-admissions criteria (those involving first semester GPA) are most effective at screening out Drops and admitting Persists.
2. The most promising of the pre-admissions criteria is that requiring applicants to have, as a minimum, either an $\text{HSR} \geq 50$ or an $\text{ACE} \geq 50$ percentile (or $\text{HSR} \geq 50$ or "special" aptitude ≥ 50 percentile). Such criteria admit all but 6 per cent or less of the Persists.

3. The most efficient of all criteria studied are those based on first semester GPA alone or in combination with test scores. First semester $\text{GPA} \geq 1.50$ or ≥ 1.70 by themselves or in combinations with $\text{ACE} \geq 50$ percentile screen out all but 5-20 per cent of the Drops and admit all but 1-3 per cent of the Persists.

4. Women are academically more predictable than men and get higher grades than men. First semester $\text{GPA} \geq 1.70$ correctly identifies all but 1 of 227 women studied.

Some possible methods of incorporating the results of this study into a selective admissions program were discussed. The most efficient method seems to be one which includes grades in college-level courses.

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Some Random Thoughts on Space Utilization

HAROLD L. DAHNKE

AT THE PRESENT TIME the concept of space utilization is gaining popularity in many colleges and universities. Numerous studies, published and unpublished, have been conducted. Commercial organizations have offered their services—for a fee. Books of the do-it-yourself variety are on the market. Panels at meetings of national organizations and workshops on local campuses have devoted an increasing amount of time to this important topic.

This tremendous interest in space utilization gains its impetus from the increased number of students that will be knocking at collegiate doors. College and university administrators, adding up the dollars of capital outlay required to meet the demand, foresee the necessity of reduction in projected dollar estimates through more efficient use of their existing and future physical plant. This necessity is, in most instances, real; but the vision may be astigmatic.

Considerable emphasis, perhaps a disproportionate amount, has been placed on one facet of the total problem of space utilization: classroom utilization. Indeed, this portion of space utilization has been studied so extensively that national norms have been developed which permit individual institutions to compare their classroom use with that in many other collegiate institutions. If existing normative data are a true reflection of existing classroom utilization, then this evidence is not likely to lead to any overwhelming support on the part of legislators or alumni for a new building program—at least for additional classrooms. The normative data show that on the average classrooms are occupied less than 20 hours per week and about 25 per cent of the seats are occupied.

In these studies of classroom utilization many measuring sticks have been proposed. Although there are many variations, there are basically two types. One, *room-period-use*, is the number of hours per week that a room is occupied by a class. The other, *student-station-hours*, is the number of hours per week that student stations are occupied. Each of these measures has as a base, *number of hours per week*. In order to arrive at some index of efficiency it is necessary to establish some meaningful number of hours per week that rooms or stations could

or should be occupied. A base which has gained considerable acceptance in many collegiate institutions is a 44-hour week; that is, rooms and stations in them are assumed to be available for scheduling 44 hours per week. Against these two criteria, the number of hours per week a room is available and the number of student stations per week that are available, it is possible to compare the actual use. What results is a percentage of the theoretical maximum utilization.

There are serious limitations attendant upon these measures. In the study of space utilization, as in many areas of educational research, adequate measures are yet to be devised. The inadequacy, however, is more in the interpretation of these data than in the yardsticks. For the student-station-hour is, *ipso facto*, a rather clear-cut measure. It lends itself well to statistical analysis and summary. Proponents of student-station-hours claim it as a more realistic measure of faculty loads than credit hours of instruction, for example, since it represents actual clock hours of instruction.

The major limitation of interpretation of *room-period-use* is such that a serious question can be raised concerning its efficacy as a measure of classroom utilization. It is generally true that an array of percentile norms has direction; that is, the 70th percentile is higher than the 50th percentile. It is also generally true that some value can be attached to these percentiles; that is, it is better, in some sense, to be at the 70th percentile than the 50th. For *room-period-use*, it does not necessarily follow that 70 per cent utilization is better than 50 per cent utilization. Given a fixed number of students and a fixed number of classrooms (necessary conditions to computing *room-period-use* at any point in time), *room-period-use* will reach a maximum as the number of students are divided into small enough units to put at least one student in each room for each of the assumed 44 hours per week. But if it be assumed that in each room, at each hour that it is occupied, there is an instructor, then it follows that more instructor hours are required (for a given number of students) if classrooms are utilized 70 per cent of the time than if they are used 50 per cent of the time. Thus, a high rate of room utilization may point to a very inefficient use of human resources. Value is not easily attached to *room-period-use* unless something is known about station use and/or some assumption is made concerning optimum class size.

While *student-station-hours* is a more readily interpreted measure than *room-period-use*, the concept is occasionally distorted in practice. Station utilization is sometimes discussed in a way which leads to the

impression that it can be improved here and now. In reality station utilization is as static as a snapshot. The schedule maker cannot influence station utilization; in most instances only the admissions officer can do this. The basic ingredients in *student-station-hours* as a measure are students, stations, and hours per week. The latter are fixed by definition, although it is true that station utilization could be enhanced by assuming less than a 44 hour week or attenuated by defining the classroom week as greater than 44; in either case such action begs the question. Altering the physical plant to remove stations will also enhance student-station-hour use; although this too begs the question in one sense, it represents a very practical alternative in some institutions where classroom space is in abundance but other space is at a premium. If the physical plant is regarded as essentially fixed, then only additional students can "improve" station utilization rates.

Both room-period-use and station-hour use have a further interpretative limitation. While this limitation is of minor importance to those accustomed to working with classroom utilization data, it is one which can be detrimental to the cause of education. In a real sense a report which indicates 70 per cent room utilization or a 50 per cent station utilization implies more "inefficiency" than really exists. In arriving at these percentages it has been assumed that all classrooms or all stations could have been occupied each hour of the assumed forty-four hour week. Is this a realistic expectation? In most utilization studies, only scheduled hours of instruction are included. Many classrooms, particularly teaching laboratories, must be available for student use during nonscheduled hours. In many cases, only a small number of students are interested in a particular academic area; thus a specialized teaching laboratory may be used only six hours per week because no greater student demand exists. Clearly a class of size X must be placed in a room of size X or larger. One hundred per cent station utilization will result only when the distribution of class sizes can be made to match the distribution of room capacities. It is doubtful that anyone would seriously suggest that the admissions officer admit students on the basis of the kinds and capacities of physical facilities that are available, or that the chief academic officer determine faculty loads by the number and size of classrooms. This, however, is the clear implication of 100 per cent classroom utilization. (Again, the possibility of altering the physical plant may be worthy of consideration.)

Clearly what is needed is an optimum rather than a maximum

usage as a basis for interpretation of actual utilization. It is doubtful that national norms represent an acceptable substitute.

II

There are at least two approaches to the development of optimum classroom utilization rates: 1) a theoretical approach, in which for a given distribution of section sizes a "best fit" distribution of room capacities might be developed; and 2) a practical approach, in which each institution, taking into account its own particular facilities, courses, staff, students, and educational philosophy, might arrive at an optimum utilization figure. Although it is not intended to further develop these concepts here, it should be noted that the *desideratum* is a group of statistics which are meaningful. That is, the statistical indices should realistically assess the actual utilization as well as provide the basis for a judgment concerning what action, if any, is possible to correct or improve the existing use of classroom facilities. For example, a distribution of classroom capacities in juxtaposition to a distribution of class sizes yields far more information than a single statistic indicating the per cent of possible station utilization for all classrooms, or even a single classroom over the period of a week. If a wide discrepancy exists between classroom capacities and the size of classes meeting in them, then certain practical courses of action are implied. It may be decided that, as increasing numbers of students enroll, class sizes will be allowed to increase until they approximate room capacities. On the other hand, it may be decided that the physical facilities should be altered to approximate existing class sizes, using the space "gained" for other purposes. Indeed, many courses of action are possible.

In any event, the decisions to be made are of academic proportions. Increased class sizes *versus* existing practice, the continuation of a course with small enrollments *versus* its demise, recruiting students for an area in which expensive but inadequately used facilities exist *versus* maintaining high admission standards, and a host of similar issues result from studying classroom utilization. While classroom utilization data help to point up the alternatives, the final decision for action and the direction this action takes is—at least it should be—based upon the educational philosophy of the college or university. Unless classroom utilization studies raise questions which challenge existing educational practice, they are sterile. If the questions are an-

swered wholly on the basis of the efficient utilization of classrooms, the institution is sterile.

Apart from the problems of interpretation, one of the serious limitations of classroom utilization studies is that the focus is too narrow. It is doubtful for most institutions that classrooms (general purpose as well as teaching laboratories) account for more than one-fourth to one-third of the total nonresidential building space. The popular conception of a college or university is probably one of rooms filled with tablet arm chairs, tables and chairs, auditorium seating, gymnastic equipment, or laboratory benches. The public, and in large measure, legislatures, boards of trustees, and alumni, are less likely to remember that collegiate institutions also consist of faculty and administrative offices, research laboratories, libraries, supporting service areas, student service areas, and, in many cases, public service areas, apart from a greater or lesser amount of residential building space. If attention is directed only toward classrooms then it is indeed possible to conclude, as popular magazine and newspaper articles already have, that colleges and universities have *classroom* space to accommodate many more students than they currently do. Ignoring for the moment the academic implications, even if it were possible to double our classroom utilization, could enrollments really be doubled within existing facilities when due consideration is given to what such an increase would do to the need for faculty and staff offices, library facilities, research laboratories, and the various services which are part of our academic programs?

Fundamentally, space utilization must be concerned with the total physical facilities of the college or university. Moreover, especially in a period of expanding enrollments, it must consider existing use of these facilities for two purposes: first, to seek improvements in the utilization of the existing plant; second, to project future building needs under an assumption of increasingly efficient use of space.

However, it is not enough to broaden the scope to include all non-residential building space, or even all building space, although this is a necessary condition for an adequate appraisal of present and future space needs. Any evaluation of the effectiveness of space utilization in an educational institution requires the utmost in objectivity, as any educational research does. The difficulty is that so many studies stop at the point of facts and figures. The phenomena which lend themselves to tabulation and statistical manipulation are not neces-

sarily the most important focus for research. With unfailing regularity, collegiate institutions count and dutifully report the number of students in attendance; they tabulate the number of faculty members and with or without statistical (sometimes mystical) manipulation arrive at a student-teacher ratio; and they count the number of classrooms and determine the degree to which they are used. All of this is a preoccupation with what *is*. There should be little quarrel with any objective data that can be collected concerning our educational programs—indeed, the more intensive and comprehensive, the better. The pity is that so many studies start, and so often stop, at this point. How often do such studies compare *what is* with *what should be*? How many students should we have? How many faculty do we really need? What should the student-teacher ratio be? How many hours per week should we schedule our classrooms? Should each staff member have a private office?

Clearly these questions, and many related ones, are beyond the bounds of space utilization—they do not obviously fall within a consideration of the efficient utilization of space. But they are related. It is unrealistic to begin a program of improving the efficiency of the present, or future, physical plant without involving every aspect of the educational program. Administration, admissions, courses, finances, teaching, students are all affected.

III

Implicit in any study of present and future building needs of a college or university are certain basic assumptions concerning the following questions.

1. What are the aims and objectives of the college or university program?
2. What courses and curricula will be required to implement these objectives?
3. How many students will be attracted by this educational program?
4. How many staff members will be required to effect the educational aims and objectives?
5. How much will it cost, both for operating expenditures and capital outlay?

Numerous studies of present facilities and future building needs have been completed by individual universities and state-wide higher education systems; facilities have been surveyed nationally and at least

some attempt has been made at a national projection of building needs between the present time and 1970. Generally, these studies have been projected on the basis of a fixed number of square feet required per student. Although this measure is readily computed and easily communicated, the implications in its use are not easily defended—at least by large universities which intend to grow larger. Unless it can be demonstrated that the addition of students to an existing program can be accomplished with less additional space and/or less additional operating expense per additional student than creating a new institution, then it would be far better to create a new institution in a locality where none now exists, since an institution "close to home" can represent real savings to the student, who can thereby reduce living expenses. While it is not the intent here to argue the merits of adding to existing institutions as opposed to creating new colleges, it is possible to show, given a realistic appraisal of present utilization of space, and projecting on the basis of some measure like square feet per student-station-hour of teaching, that additional students can be accommodated less expensively by adding to existing institutions than by creating a new college, at least to some point of diminishing returns.

The real limitation of these studies is not so much in the measures used in projection as it is in their failure to deal realistically with the basic questions outlined above. Most studies, if not all, have made essentially these assumptions:

1. No major changes in aims or objectives.
2. No major changes in courses or curricula; or, at least, any changes effected would not alter utilization rates appreciably.
3. A virtual doubling of the number of students by 1970.
4. A near doubling of the staff by 1970.
5. By determining the square feet required to handle twice as much, a conversion to dollars has been made *via* an assumed cost per square foot.

Now these assumptions are not *ipso facto* inadequate. Indeed, it can be argued with some merit that they are the only assumptions that can be made in the practical case. If objectives change, or courses of instruction require more or less space, or more or fewer students are admitted than were anticipated, or more or less capital outlay is available than was assumed, it is time enough then to correct the projections. To a degree this is true. But if future building needs have indeed been projected and some buildings are now being constructed on

the basis of these projections, are the proper buildings being built, with the right kind of space? The answer to this disquieting question is anything but clear.

Certainly it is not realistic, in the case of many institutions, to assume no major changes in aims and objectives. To cite only two examples: It is a fair guess that in the next ten years many junior colleges will expand their programs and that some of them will become four-year institutions. Secondly, many existing universities will become increasingly graduate institutions. The implications of these possibilities for the institutions involved certainly dictate against a projection based on "more of the same."

One cannot have lived through the past fifteen years—or even five years—of higher education and failed to notice drastic shifts in the courses and curricula of many educational areas. These changes have been concentrated heavily in the sciences, but have been by no means limited to these areas.

The best of predictions, however, may fall on the basis of finances. One study of national proportions suggests that higher education will require eleven to fifteen billions of dollars between now and 1970, for capital outlay alone. Now this is only for buildings and building replacement. What about operating expenses? If the staff nearly doubles, and if salary expenditures represent the greater portion of operating expenses, is it realistic to assume that the money will be available?

Education is certainly a basic value in American democracy. Previous experience indicates that legislatures, alumni, business, industry, and the public at large have supplied the funds when the need was made known. Undoubtedly, they will continue to do so; but they will also demand, in the name of economy and efficiency, more productivity for their money. Finances, in all probability, will serve to force the issue, and space utilization may be an unwilling handmaiden.

How these increased efficiencies will occur is not easy to predict. Closed circuit television may be an answer for some institutions (the implications of such an eventuality for projected building requirements are *horribile dictu*), although this is not an unmixed financial blessing. Double shifts of classes, temporary facilities, and other makeshift arrangements *à la* the veteran bulge may also occur in some colleges. A better guess is that class sizes, or at least faculty loads, will increase, for increased class size offers a three-pronged attack on the

problem. It decreases the amount of additional classrooms needed, assuming present classrooms are not optimally utilized, thus reducing the amount of additional capital outlay. It reduces the number of additional staff needed, assuming graduate assistants can be hired to compensate for the additional clerical chores involved, thus reducing operating expenses (salaries) and capital outlay (office space). It is also a partial answer to the lack of trained staff to handle the projected increased number of students. Some institutions have already crossed this line. "So you teach 150 students per term for \$6,000 per year. If you are willing to teach 300 students per term, come to our institution and we will pay you \$10,000 per year." Offers such as this may sorely challenge an avowed interest in small classes. In any event, it seems likely that the next ten years will see much experimentation, and much soul searching related to the teaching-learning situation in an attempt to reduce unit costs.

If studies of the use of the existing physical plant are to lead to fruitful results beyond mere data gathering, and if the projections of future building needs are to be consonant with the real situation when they have ceased to be projections, then space utilization must be an educational problem first, and an administrative concern second. Until the dimensions of the academic program are known, no evaluation of current practices or future needs can be effective. In large measure the academic program is a function of values, which should precede rather than follow from a study of space utilization.

Freshman Career Haze in an Educational Maze

JEROME F. WEYNAND

KIPLING—as any budding journalist knows—kept “six honest serving-men (they taught me all I knew); their names are What and Why and When, and How and Where and Who.” The five W’s and the H of a news story have simple application to world events coverage in general, and in particular to youth in search of their “niche” in life. One of the hardest decisions is *what* to choose as a satisfying and rewarding career. Added to this are the *how*, *when*, *where*, *why*, and *who* of the matter in career choice.

The quandary of career choice probably is experienced by youth over a period of years. Some people never make a decision. It is our premise that this puzzlement over job opportunities and vocational preparation is closely tied to educational factors: those first few post-high school months and the initial day of entry into the college whirl probably are among life’s most anxious moments.

Admissions officers and registrars probably add to the freshman haze that surrounds the lofty thoughts or high goals set by some college applicants (or their parents). Likewise, the questionnaires, the applications, and the registration blanks calling for decisions on major fields of study that are by tradition shoved under the noses of the college newcomers may only deepen anxiety for many students. Many registrars directly or indirectly trigger a quick choice by “helping” or urging indecisive students to choose a career or follow a field of study in the time it takes to complete a registration form.

This anxiety over what to do in life as a breadwinner, when to start the preparation, where to enroll, to whom to turn for counseling, and many other questions is formidable when coupled with the more sensational headlines of the day:

TIDAL WAVE OF STUDENTS TO HIT SOON
CAN JOHNNY READ?
WHO SHOULD GO TO COLLEGE?
U.S. EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM LAGS RUSSIAN
SCHOOLS MUST BE DOUBLED IN NEXT DECADE
TUITION HIKE AGAIN

GOVERNMENT LOANS TO EDUCATION NEEDED
THE CLOSING COLLEGE DOOR
SELECTIVE ADMISSIONS DUE AT STATE U.
UNEMPLOYMENT PEAK THIS YEAR
FOUR PROFS LEAVE CLASSROOMS FOR INDUSTRY
COLLEGE GRADUATES: SOFTER LIFE AT HIGHER PAY!

Today the major challenge to guidance is to help the individual to make choices commensurate with his intellectual and emotional development. The path is wide but not smooth; the forks in the road are well marked but one can't see over the hill; the attractions are often misleading to the young Americans seeking "optimum" educational advancement and occupational placement.

In order that they may not have limited or inadequate educational programs or be denied completely their right of free choice of a livelihood, more attention must be given to the career fields of our college-age, "raw material" manpower—leaders to be in an uncertain future of nuclear power, intercontinental ballistic missiles, and trips to the moon!

Occasional talk, some thought, but little planning undoubtedly goes into the average college student's choice of a life's work. One psychiatric clinic reports that nearly three-fourths of the persons seeking treatment there have mental symptoms based on job-rated impairments or dissatisfactions. Free selection of something satisfying and rewarding to do is complicated possibly by the cafeteria choice from more than 22,000 specialized jobs described in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*.

This year every fourth student who goes to college will register at a junior college. This may be the route by which all youngsters will embark on their higher education, according to some reports. Cost, curriculum, convenience, adjustment are some factors in the selection of a two-year college. Not all students will be able or even want to pursue a four-year baccalaureate degree program. So, the uniquely American junior college concept has emerged from California to Florida to offer to students a wide gamut of educational opportunities near home at a low cost. Here, then, is a ground for exploration and proving with low overhead.

The entering freshman is a bewildered animal. He is making a transition from secondary school to college. Oftentimes his initial col-

lege experiences are confusing rather than clarifying. He needs time to reorganize his new life and his habits in view of broadened horizons. While he may be able to enter into campus bull sessions in the areas of sex, politics, or the Dodgers, he may seldom bring up the subject of a career which gives him little or no immediate gratification. Also, the new college student may cling to a childhood "fantasy choice" of career, the wishes of family to enter a prechosen profession, the urgings of a girl friend, or the prestige acceptance by his peer group in deciding on a professional field. It is small wonder, then, that career choice is often relegated to chance, compromise, apology, pressures, or fancies.

II

The career quandary of entering college freshman students in a large urban junior college provided impetus for a study of anxiety and choice factors in the selection of career fields by a sampling of such students at San Antonio College, now in its thirty-fifth academic year of operation as a junior college.

A 13-point questionnaire was completed by 209 of the 616 entering freshmen. All students in the unselected sample group were full-time day division students who had met entrance requirements and had completed a battery of standardized admissions (aptitude) tests prior to answering the questionnaire. The group had a mean age of 19.2 years, a modal age of 18 years in a range from 16 to 47 years. Eighty-two per cent of the students answering were graduates of urban high schools, largely from the 25 secondary schools in the college district of some 150 square miles. Six per cent of the graduates came from high schools in Texas towns, while 5 per cent came from rural high schools in the state. Only 3 per cent of the entrants were graduates of schools outside Texas. Four per cent were admitted to the college by special admissions tests given in lieu of high school graduation or the 15 required units. The sample includes six Negro students and 23 graduates of Roman Catholic schools or academies in Texas. Graduating classes ranged in size from 6 to 550 members, the mean being 256 students, and the mode in the bracket 451-500 students.

A survey of the formal educational levels of parents showed these results:

TABLE I
FORMAL EDUCATION OF PARENTS OF
STUDENTS IN SAMPLE GROUP

Fathers (N:161)	Mean Mode Range	Mothers (N:154)
11.2 grades		11.4 grades
12 grades		12 grades
0 to Ph.D. degree		0 to M.A. degree
50	High School Graduate	63
24	College Graduate	16

Occupations of parents range from day laborers, professional cooks, and domestic employees to physicians, lawyers, psychologists, and military officers in a gamut which includes salesmen, retired persons, accountants, carpenters, small store owners, electricians, telephone operators, ranchers, plumbers, engineers, civil service workers, butchers, teachers, bus drivers, college professors, farmers, ministers, and others.

Approximately 31 per cent of the students come from homes in which both the father and the mother hold full-time family-income jobs. More mothers than fathers are high school graduates; the educational backgrounds of women in the study also are higher than those of the men.

Mother and father were cited by 52 of the students as giving the most aid in determination of a career. But teachers topped the list of influences with 45 nominations or 25 per cent of those cited as being influential in career choice. Friends who helped in the decision numbered 28, relatives 13, self 11, brother 5, physician 5, sister 4, boss 4, stranger 3, wife, minister, and army officer rated 2 votes each, while dean, neighbor, and family were cited once each.

Fantasy choice or a student's first recollection of "something he wanted to be" and his present career choice ranged from a soldier then to a minister now, fashion designer to school teacher, nurse to medical doctor, Roman Catholic priest to psychologist. One student dreamed of being an architect but wishes now to become a medical doctor, and others switched from President of the United States to chemist, from wrestler to engineer, from Texas Ranger to geologist, and from policeman to college professor.

It was noted at once that few students had preserved their initial

TABLE II
REASONS FOR CHOICE OF CAREER GIVEN BY SAMPLE GROUP

Reasons	Number	Per Cent
Satisfaction	98	51
Security	41	21
Money	21	11
Humanitarian	10	5
Adventure	10	5
Prestige	6	3
Interest	3	1.5
Other	3	1.5
Social	1	1
N: 193		100

or fantasy choice through the tentative period of exploration in the junior high school level, and presently held to the same field. In the sample, only 7 men and 7 women showed unchanging choices over the 10- to 12-year period. A slightly larger number of this group of 209 students, 12 men and 14 women, indicated the same first choice with their present interest.

A number of students were undecided or showed no preference as to career choice: 11 at the earliest point of recollection, 53 during the period of exploration in the junior high school, and 17 at the college freshman or present period.

Initial annual salaries or other income expected by students as they embark on their career jobs ranged from \$2,400 for a bachelor's de-

TABLE III
NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN THE SAMPLE GROUPED ACCORDING
TO THEIR RESPECTIVE GRADE POINT AVERAGES*
FIRST SEMESTER IN COLLEGE

A:3	B:2	C:1	D:0	F:0	Number of Students	
					Men	Women
3.000	—				1	1
2.500—2.999					5	5
2.000—2.499					14	10
1.500—1.999					12	19
1.000—1.499					36	10
.000—.999					65	23
No record					5	3
					N:209	138
						71

* Physical training and music activity courses not included in this study.

TABLE IV
PRESENT CAREER CHOICES OF THE STUDENTS IN
THE SAMPLE GROUP

Career Choice	Frequency
Teacher	47
Engineer	43
Chemist	14
Accountant	6
Architect	6
General business	6
Medical doctor	6
Artist	5
Lawyer	5
Athletic coach	5
Secretary	5
Pharmacist	4
Journalist	4
Psychologist	3
Geologist	3
Electronics technician	3
Minister	2
Author	2
Diplomat	2
College professor	2
Dentist	2
Nuclear physicist	1
Languages interpreter	1
Speech therapist	1
Automobile dealer	1
Dressmaker	1
Chiropractor	1
Dental assistant	1
Game conservationist	1
Interior decorator	1
Optometrist	1
Biologist	1
Astronomer	1
Salesman	1
Fashion designer	1
Rancher	1
Refrigeration and air conditioning	1
City manager	1
Undecided	17

N: 209

gree holder to "above \$10,000." The mean salary expected is \$3,510, with a mode expectation of \$5,000 for the first year. Potentialities of this same group surged to a much higher mean of \$7,800 as the top year's income, with a mode in the \$6,000 to \$10,000 class in a range from \$4,000 to \$1,000,000!

Fields of study or majors for the student body as a whole showed

that 370 of 1,002 freshman students had not stated preferences, while 109 of 595 sophomores were without stated majors, and 44 special students were not listed in this area. This indicates that about one fourth the students did not have major fields recorded.

Of the 209 students reporting on the questionnaire, 58.5 per cent signified that they had little career or occupational guidance; 26 per cent said that they had adequate guidance in choosing a field; while 15.5 per cent (24 male and 8 female freshmen) stated that they had no outside help in deciding on a major field of study. Tabulated questionnaires included those of 135 men (65 per cent of the total) and 74 women (35 per cent). The male-female ratio of the 1,641-member day student body was 72 per cent men and 28 per cent women.

III

It may be concluded from the findings of this study that the majority of the sample experienced little career guidance of a nature that was apparent to them. Ultimate perplexities and indecisions nurtured by a variety of factors caused a common career anxiety.

Parents, perhaps the least qualified advisers for the occupational choice of their sons and daughters, contribute most often to this vital decision by offspring. The free choice must, however, be reserved for the youngsters through astute guidance. This necessitates providing adequate occupational information, psychological measures, understanding of self abilities and interests, and a liaison between home, school, and business.

Educational backgrounds of parents of freshmen studied had no noticeable effect upon the aptitude or achievement of the sample as a group. Students from low-income homes with parents of little or no formal schooling fared on test scores and academic grades as well or better than income-socially superior homes headed by parents in the professional class.

Frequent career choices of "teacher" and "engineer" are due probably to the prestige and current public acceptance of these professions.

"Satisfaction" was given by 51 per cent of the sample group as the reason for their particular current choice. Reasons given for possible switches or changes in majors were topped by "financial," followed closely by "scholastic reasons." Other reasons listed were job outlook, indecision, family obligations, time to complete required training, and marriage.

Test scores resulting from standardized aptitude examinations given to all entering freshmen measured consistently to predict success during the first semester in college. When used with the student's high school cumulative record and interest patterns, the psychological measures became a good basis for counseling with regard to selection of courses towards a goal.

It would be well to remember that factors of career choice are not static; therefore, no study of this type can be stable. Each new high school graduating class and each college freshman class must be considered as a fresh melting pot of raw material, ready to be forged, but not molded in mass conformity.

New career openings will appear with each new year. Students would do well to keep a broad base in their freshman and sophomore years before deciding upon their speciality or advanced study. The junior college can best meet the needs of the majority of youth seeking entry into the college whirl, particularly those still floundering for something to do.

Accredited vs. Nonaccredited High Schools

PAUL M. SMITH, JR.

THE ADMISSIONS OFFICERS in some smaller institutions of higher education accept high school graduates from schools that have been labeled nonaccredited. These schools received such a designation from the regional accrediting association when certain requirements are found to be below standard. Some of these shortcomings may be low dollar per pupil expenditure, high pupil-teacher ratio, or inadequate physical facilities.

One administrative argument for permitting these students to enter college is to completely utilize available facilities. Admissions officers may be aware of the difference between the student on paper and the "flesh and blood" one,¹ although some faculty members in these institutions seem to be rather sensitive about accepting students from non-accredited schools, assuming that this practice is a manifestation of low faculty status, poor students, and low college standards in general. Consequently, the officer of admissions is attacked by faculty members for permitting such students to register in the college. In this kind of atmosphere faculty members may set up, consciously or unconsciously, handicaps against these students in the classroom—unreasonable standards which satisfy the ego of the teacher but frustrate the student. Actually, are the chances for academic success in college any less for students who graduate from nonaccredited high schools than for students who graduate from accredited high schools?

It is the purpose of this study to show the extent of differences in the performance of freshman students from accredited and nonaccredited high schools as indicated by the grade point averages (GPA) and the scores made on the *Scholastic Aptitude Test* (SAT).

METHOD

The subjects for this investigation were freshman students enrolled at Albany State College in September, 1958. There were 51 students registered from nonaccredited high schools, slightly better than one out of every four. Five students were eliminated because of insufficient

¹ Eugene S. Wilson, "Paper and Blood," *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY*, 34:273-282, Spring, 1959.

data; the remaining 46 were used. An equal number of students from accredited high schools were drawn at random.

The data were analyzed in terms of (1) the high school GPA, which was used to show some degree of academic achievement prior to entering college; (2) the first quarter GPA, used to indicate some measure of academic success during the first period of college; and (3) scores from the *Scholastic Aptitude Test*, used to show academic learning ability.

The Per Cent Agreement technique² was used to show the relationship between the groups, insofar as the SAT score agreed with the GPA, or how well the two scores divided the groups into thirds. The numerical value of letter grades was A = 4, B = 3, C = 2, D = 1, F = 0.

RESULTS

From Table I it is seen that the mean GPA from high school and the one obtained during the first three months of college were not

TABLE I
MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, AND T-RATIO OF THE ACCREDITED
AND NONACCREDITED GROUP SCORES

	Accredited		Nonaccredited		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	T-ratio
GPA	2.5	.22	2.7	.42	.73
Quarter GPA	2.1	.55	2.2	.72	.007
SAT-V	263.6	11.38	258.6	6.38	2.59*
SAT-M	278.8	8.3	294.4	9.8	8.2*

* Significant at .01 level.

significantly different. This was true when viewed within each group and between the groups.

Inspection of the mean SAT scores showed a significant difference. The accredited group's verbal score was significantly higher than the nonaccredited group's, while the latter group's mathematical score was significantly higher than that of the accredited group. This difference may be questionable in view of the results of the other data. Possibly the sample size influenced to some degree the difference computed.

²College Entrance Examination Board, *College Board Scores No. 2*, pp. 12-15.

Table II shows the degree of agreement between the GPA and the SAT scores. The approximate correlation coefficient value of the *PcA* was obtained from the 1957 *Supplement of College Board Scores* No. 2, p. 206.

The quarter GPA was not shown since there was no real difference between the mean GPA made in high school and that made during the first period of college. The best agreement computed was 43 per cent which was equal to an approximate correlation coefficient of .34. This indicated that the GPA did not correlate too well with the SAT scores in dividing the groups into thirds, thus low agreement. This highest index of agreement was evident only with the nonaccredited group's SAT scores; however, little confidence may be placed in a per cent of

TABLE II
PER CENT OF AGREEMENT BETWEEN GPA AND SAT SCORES, AND
THE APPROXIMATE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT FOR THE
ACCREDITED AND NONACCREDITED GROUPS

	Accredited		Nonaccredited	
	PcA	r	PcA	r
High School GPA and SAT-V	37%	.15	35%	.08
High School GPA and SAT-M	37%	.15	28%	.00
SAT-V and SAT-M	24%	.00	43%	.34

agreement at this level. For predictive purposes the GPA and SAT scores should probably be 53 per cent agreement or above to be dependable. Since the scores did not agree closely with the marks in either case, the chances of accepting a student for successful college experience from a nonaccredited school appeared to be as good as accepting the student who graduated from an accredited one.

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

There was no significant difference found between the groups' GPA prior to and during the time spent in college. The relationship between the SAT scores and GPA was of little positive value as a predictor of academic behavior. The SAT scores for the nonaccredited school group indicated the most significant per cent of agreement.

The results of this investigation suggest that the terms accredited and nonaccredited are ambiguous with regard to separating students

from respective schools for likely college success; but in the small college community, in particular, such terms may instill preconceived notions of academic performance in faculty members, administrators, and other students.

In this type of college situation, where most individuals are known, it would be well to make a conscious effort to disregard and refrain from the use of such terms in admission policy and procedures, orientation activities, and classroom experiences. Although in some cases the term nonaccredited many motivate students to perform well, it is a negative force and thus may decrease the self-confidence of many students.

Each institution prescribes certain criteria of admissions, implying the concept of individual differences and merit. Few colleges admit students on the basis of institutional status or classification. How significant and what difference does it make whether the applicant graduated from a "green or blue" school so long as he is willing to take the chance along with other students to attend a certain college! It would seem that labeling a school because it lacks certain facilities should be thrashed out between officials of the accrediting association and school administrators, but by no means should this terminology be used in the school community to the extent of injuring students and their future development.

The Higher Education Advertising Campaign

VICTOR J. DANILOV

IN 1957 the Council for Financial Aid to Education and the Advertising Council joined forces in an unprecedented effort on behalf of higher education. The two public service agencies launched a two-year nation-wide advertising campaign with a double purpose:

1. To bring home to the citizens of America—day after day—the crucial importance of higher education and the urgent need to support it.
2. To generate a favorable climate in which colleges and universities may conduct effective solicitations.

They sought to achieve these ends largely through the instruments of mass communications: the newspapers, magazines, radio stations, television stations, and other such outlets. They also sought to organize local action groups that could mobilize colleges and universities, business and civic leaders, students and alumni, and other interested parties. It was to be all-out effort engineered by the Council for Financial Aid to Education, composed of leading business and education leaders; conducted by the Advertising Council, representing the advertising field; and financed by \$180,000 in contributions from 27 business firms and philanthropic groups. There were the usual critics who argued that the campaign had little chance of succeeding; that the whole idea was undignified and too commercial; that the time and funds could be put to better use.

The campaign was planned by some of the nation's leading advertising executives, in consultation with college and university presidents and Council for Financial Aid to Education officials. Three points were selected as the theme of the campaign:

1. We must prepare today for increased enrollments tomorrow.
2. College faculties must be strengthened now.
3. You are dependent upon good education; good education depends upon you.

These points were stressed throughout the two-year campaign, and in a variety of ways—all designed to impress upon the American public the need for understanding and assisting the nation's 1,800 colleges

and universities. Some of the materials prepared and distributed follow:

Newspapers: Four newspaper kits were prepared, as new advertisements were brought out, approximately every six months. Each kit was mailed to the 8,500 daily and weekly newspapers which use mats.

Business publications: Two special kits were prepared and mailed to more than 900 business and trade magazines. The advertisements were pointed to industry and, in several instances, carried endorsements of aid to education by prominent businessmen.

Company magazines: Three kits were mailed to the editors of 3,800 leading company magazines.

Consumer, alumni, and church magazines: A series of ad proof sheets were prepared and made available to general and special publications, to national and local advertisers, and to institutions of higher education and organizations. Free electrotypes plates were offered to the commercial media and advertisers donating space.

Transportation advertising: Some 450,000 car cards, in five sets, were distributed to transportation companies for posting in the 90,000 trains, buses, and trolleys of the nation. The same cards were made available to colleges and local civic groups for window displays and bulletin boards.

Television: Four kits were distributed, at six-month intervals, to the television networks and some 550 television stations. Each kit contained slides, flip cards, balloons, fact sheets, and film clips in 1-minute, 20-second, and 10-second reels.

Radio: Special kits were sent to the radio networks and 3,800 radio stations each spring and fall. The kits included fact sheets and two sets of announcements—six each of 1-minute, 30-second, 20-second, and 8-second spots.

Direct mail: Nearly 1,000,000 copies of an inexpensive booklet describing the crisis facing higher education were distributed in answer to mail requests and through college mailings to alumni and others.

To implement the national program, colleges and universities, local advertising clubs, and businessmen were urged to organize local action groups. As a result, committees or organizations were formed in more than 70 areas across the country. Local action groups came into being in cities like San Francisco, Philadelphia, Milwaukee, Los Angeles, New York, Chicago, Akron, Rochester, Syracuse, Atlanta, Buffalo, Cincinnati, St. Louis, and the Quad Cities. The campaign was handled

on a state-wide basis in New Jersey, Ohio, North Carolina, Iowa, West Virginia, Minnesota, and Colorado; and on a regional basis in such areas as Southern California, Northern California, North Central Ohio, and the Kansas-Missouri region.

These local groups were organized in a variety of ways, and undertook a great many projects aimed at informing the public of the needs of higher education, with emphasis on conditions in the local areas. In the Philadelphia area, 20 colleges and universities worked together through an *ad hoc* committee to carry the message to residents of a four-county area. The campaign was highlighted by a joint meeting of the boards of trustees of the colleges and universities in the area. Leading Philadelphia business, civic, and government leaders also were invited. More than 200 persons attended the rally.

The higher education advertising campaign in Akron was tied to a charter amendment vote that would increase tax support for the University of Akron by one mill, representing an increase of \$700,000 in the institution's income. In 1957 the amendment failed, but the following year the advertising campaign put it across. Among the promotional techniques utilized were a city-wide lamp of learning lighting ceremony, localization of national ads, special radio and television programs, lapel buttons, billboards, car cards, and a direct mail campaign to 125,000 families in the area.

New Jersey's 38 colleges and universities united in a similar public information campaign on a state-wide basis. The drive sought to set the stage for an intensified fund-raising campaign by the state's privately controlled institutions and an \$82,000,000 bond issue referendum for expansion of the eight publicly supported colleges and universities. In addition to placing numerous stories and advertisements in the state's newspapers, the local action group arranged for the *New Jersey Business Magazine*, published by the New Jersey Manufacturers Association, to devote 18 pages of its December 1957 issue to the needs of higher education in the state.

In Colorado, the 18 public and private institutions of higher education joined with the Denver Advertising Club and a citizen's committee in a six-month state-wide campaign, highlighted by a survey of higher education needs in the state. The Colorado Crusade for Higher Education, as it was called, arranged for the proclamation of "Higher Education Week" by the governor, operated a speakers' bureau, produced localized newspaper and magazine mats, initiated

special mailings, and sponsored a kickoff dinner with Walter P. Paepcke, board chairman of the Container Corporation of America, as the principal speaker.

The Southern California tie-in with the national higher education advertising campaign started with the appointment of a steering committee by the presidents of the Independent Colleges of Southern California. A prominent advertising executive was named chairman and a leading businessman was selected as vice chairman. The campaign that followed included news stories, public service advertisements, alumni mailings, exhibits, billboard posters, the passage of resolutions, and three major luncheon meetings—for college presidents, trustees, and alumni respectively. More than 1,000 alumni attended the latter meeting to hear an address by Dr. Milton Eisenhower, President of Johns Hopkins University.

In North Central Ohio, 22 colleges and universities appointed representatives to a working committee, named 85 business and community leaders to an advisory committee, and asked a Cleveland public relations executive to serve as campaign co-ordinator. Dr. Grayson Kirk, President of Columbia University, gave the main address at a luncheon kicking off "Higher Education Week," which was proclaimed by the governor and the mayor of Cleveland. The campaign was climaxed by the release of a report by the Cleveland Commission on Higher Education on the needs and plans of colleges and universities in the metropolitan area.

This story, with variations, was repeated by local action groups throughout the nation during the two-year higher education advertising campaign.

Now, what was the result of all this activity? Were the objectives attained? Was it worth all the time, effort, and money? Where do we go from here? These are all reasonable questions, and they deserve answering.

In reply to the first question, the results of the advertising campaign can best be described as overwhelming. The total value of advertising received in connection with the campaign was double the fondest expectation. Campaign officials had indicated that they would consider the two-year campaign a success if it received anywhere close to \$4,000,000 in free advertising—measured in terms of what it would cost to purchase the services and space commercially. When the campaign came to a close last spring, the value of the advertising

received totaled \$8,250,000, a tremendous return on a \$180,000 investment in out-of-pocket costs for materials and distribution.

It is difficult to give a complete reply to the second question at this time, because it will be years before the full benefits of the advertising campaign are recorded. And even then it will be impossible, in many cases, to determine exactly what effect the campaign had on the greater concern and support for higher education. Frank Sparks, president of the Council for Financial Aid to Education, and George P. Ludlam, vice president of the Advertising Council, however, believe the campaign achieved what it set out to do—to create a more favorable attitude toward higher education.

The fact that private giving increased to a record \$411,000,000 and alumni contributions reached an all-time high of nearly \$130,000,000 in 1958 seems to support their view. These figures also help to answer the question regarding the time, effort, and money invested in the advertising program. There appears to be no question that the campaign paid for itself in advertising dividends and private contributions.

The investment was even more fruitful in another respect. The campaign proved that public and private institutions of higher education can work together to each other's benefit. It demonstrated the need for and success of a united effort in the never-ending struggle to advance the cause of higher education.

The Council for Financial Aid to Education and the Advertising Council provided the answer to the last question—Where do we go from here?—when they extended the national advertising campaign for three more years. The informational program during the last two years achieved much, as has been indicated, but the fight for adequate public understanding and support of higher education has not been won. There is much ignorance, indifference, and selfishness that blocks the path to this higher level of appreciation and assistance.

American colleges and universities can win this struggle only by carrying the battle to the people; by explaining their mission and needs so that every citizen understands the necessity for greater financial support. The national advertising campaign, it seems to me, is an excellent vehicle for achieving this end, without sacrificing the independence, quality, or dignity of our institutions of higher education.

Editorial Comment

Back to Bishop Butler

FOR SEVERAL YEARS we have been hearing about our deficiencies in scientific and mathematical learning, and the responsibility of our educational system for them. Those deficiencies have cost us prestige, at the very least, and may cost us much more; but it is doubtful that they can cost us more than another deficiency for which our educational system must be held responsible also—our inability to recognize unpleasant facts, and our equal inability to evaluate what we do recognize.

We consider ourselves moral and generous people, with no desire whatever to make other people in any way unhappy; and because we appear that way to ourselves, we overlook how we may appear to others who do not share our predilections in our own favor. When those others make it clear to us that they don't share our prejudice, then we are either hurt or, more recently, scared. In such emotional turmoil, we are unable to understand what is going on; and for generations we have failed to educate our younger people to understand.

We are upset by the way in which people in other parts of the world act toward us. We yearn to stretch out the arms of friendship and peace, and grin the world into universal affability. What we forget, however, and what they remember, is that it was only sixty years ago that God told President McKinley to put the snitch on the Philippines. Perhaps we don't forget it: perhaps we never learned about it. And although God has since then more or less withdrawn from our politics in any official capacity, our cocksureness that he is on our side does not inspire many of those who knew us at the turn of the century to suppose that we have changed much.

This is especially true since we went about reforming Latin America a generation later, using, as is customary, the Marines for such reform, an activity which followed President Theodore Roosevelt's acquisition of the Canal Zone, presumably his own idea and not God's; but the resulting suspicion is no less. We have forgotten such unpleasant matters, but Latin America hasn't.

Nor have the colored people of the world forgotten the slavery of their not at all remote ancestors and brethren, and the contempt in which we hold colored people in this country today. We point to im-

provement in our relations between white and colored people, and smile and smile; but colored people across the world do not smile with us. And there are a lot more of them than there are of us.

For years we have been unable to understand why the Russians do not welcome our peaceful overtures and join us in a cosmic song of brotherhood. We have forgotten, and we do not make our young people aware, that some forty years ago the armed forces of the United States invaded Russia for the express purpose of overthrowing the existing government. The Russians remember.

The Chinese remember that Anglo-Saxons made coolies of Chinese and kept them in subjection just as long as they could. The Japanese, quite as adept as we are in assuming superiority, remember that, no matter what the explanatory and argumentative palaver we may offer by way of excuse, we did drop atom bombs on Japan. We say it was necessary, but the Japanese may not share that point of view. The Koreans presumably remember what we have forgotten, that we called them gooks.

We have forgotten the disparaging and downright horrible names that we have given various other people, to express our contempt of them; but they have not forgotten. When, therefore, we grin and say we yearn to embrace all mankind in fraternal felicity, the majority of mankind seem to regard us as either hypocrites or fools. Both hypocrites and fools are prodigiously dangerous when they have bombs to play with. Others consider us dangerous, and, considering us dangerous, fail to admire us and follow our self-righteous directions.

We forget, and do not teach our young people, that self-righteousness, assumption of unique moral superiority, is invariably so offensive as to block reasonable consideration of anything a self-righteous person may advocate. We forget, and have not taught our young people, that preaching is just about the most repellent form of diplomacy, and that repellence in diplomacy costs empires. We smile; but other people keep looking for the knife under our cloak, and consequently do not listen very closely to our appeals.

This way disaster lies. Others consider us an evil and imperialistic power, and they go along with us only until they see how to go what they consider a safer way. We are grieved that they act this way, because we honestly want the best for them—so long as it does not interfere with what we have and do, of course. We get to thinking that they are just bad guys, mere puppets of communism; and if one of us so

much as speaks his mind about our own delinquencies, he is apt to be scolded all round the country.

We have not learned to understand the value of criticism, above all of self-criticism, and have not been educated to exercise any critical faculty beyond contempt of what is not our way of doing things. We have never learned that fundamental to understanding of affairs, to appreciation of our place and prospects in our world, is clear preception of circumstances. We have never been taught to see what is before us, and to try to evaluate what we see. Rather, we have been brought up among slogans and salutes, and taught that we are always right because we are always virtuous. This, I am afraid, is a way of saying that we are silly.

Educators can hardly change the international picture overnight; but they can improve matters if they inculcate a means to a wiser way of life and a better relationship with others. For one thing, educators can first learn themselves, and then teach others, what Bishop Butler said before we were a nation—what we have consistently overlooked for a century and a half: "Things and actions are what they are, and the consequences of them will be what they will be; why then should we wish to be deceived?"

S. A. N.

Book Reviews

W. G. B.

Mabel Newcomer, *A Century of Higher Education for American Women*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. xii + 206. \$5.00.

One dollar deposited in a bank in 1840 and allowed to "grow" at 6 per cent would today be worth \$1,088.14. Compound interest alone cannot explain the fact that barely 120 years since the first woman entered a university in the United States, more than a million women are enrolled in our institutions of higher education.

Miss Mabel Newcomer's history of this movement is important because she has succeeded admirably in relating the events to the forces that shaped them. For the same reason it is intensely interesting. From small and tentative beginnings, she traces the development of thought and practice in the higher education of women through the normal schools and teachers' colleges, the women's colleges and the big universities, playing her theme with one hand and the accompanying notes of social change with the other.

Professor Newcomer has outstanding qualifications for the task she undertook at the request of the Committee on Publications for the Vassar College Centenary Celebration. A clue to her motivation may be found among her bibliographical notes: "The biographies of women leaders and educators and the individual college histories that I have found useful are too numerous to list. I cannot refrain, however, from stating that most of the college histories have contributed relatively little for the purpose in hand, and are hardly a credit to the institutions they are designed to extol."

A woman who "cannot refrain" from comment when a noble cause is drained of its nobility and left altogether too high and altogether too dry is a woman who commands an audience. This woman speaks out of full knowledge and experience, for she spent forty years teaching at Vassar. Her book measures up to the high standards of that institution, which not only pioneered in the early days of higher education for women, but stayed ahead throughout the exploding century.

Today, we are told, the question is not, Can women be educated? Nor is it, Shall they be educated? Tomorrow, according to Miss Newcomer, the question will not even be, Where will they be educated? The women themselves, by flocking to the coeducational institutions, may be putting an end to that debate. But that is not the end of the whole matter. The goals of women's education are still actively discussed no less than the goals of men's education. Watching the young men and women of today as they move into the complicated society that awaits them, the thoughtful person

wonders whether any college or university can afford even a small measure of complacency.

There is no complacency in the vigorous, clear-headed author of this book. She acknowledges the great achievement of the past, and recognizes it as a treasure. (One must give this recognition if one is a woman who grew up in the years before World War I.)

Particularly valuable are the chapters on the aims of women's colleges and the course of study. They reveal the way in which women were granted opportunities for study in all the fields of knowledge with consequent opportunities for professional activity in a man's world.

Although Miss Newcomer writes history very well, one senses that her chief concern is less with the past than with the present and the immediate future. Like an explorer, she charts a course to spots on the horizon where greater treasure may be found. In her final chapter, "What Next?", she attempts to answer her own question.

Assuming the continuation of the present pattern of early marriage, children, then a return to professional life in middle age, she holds that the higher education of women is no less important than it used to be. That it may need re-evaluation and revision, she is quick to point out. She discusses the place of the liberal arts in professional training, and deplores the error of some educators in either ignoring or belittling the desire for vocational training. She thinks that many colleges could revise their degree requirements by placing less emphasis upon techniques, and then reducing their course offerings (Amen to this); and she admonishes us all to show a little more flexibility in working with women transfer students whose education has been stopped and started. She has ideas about financing women's education, about the selection and training of women scholars, and a host of other topics. The reader comes away with the feeling that Mabel Newcomer would like to start in on another forty years. We could use her.

This is a book not on any account to be missed by thoughtful students of American education, men as well as women. For those of us who are professionally engaged in educational endeavors it is required reading. And not too heavy for a summer's day, either.

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Alfred T. Hill, *The Small College Meets the Challenge: The Story of the Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges, Inc.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. xi + 173. \$4.95.

Gather a pride of college presidents in a comfortable place, provide a stimulating leader to keep them thinking out loud about how to improve

their educational efforts, take down the results, refine the recording for usable ideas—and here's your book. Brainstorming, as industry calls it, is equally useful in academia. The product is even more meaningful if the ideas have been tried out between numerous sessions, as these have.

Particularly, these leaders of colleges have been goaded into studying how to lift themselves by their bootstraps because they have been covering rough academic terrain in a chilly academic climate that made their "boots" feel most uncomfortably thin. They are the presidents of colleges that are, or have been until recently, poor and unaccredited.

Their first idea for breaking the vicious circle of lack of accreditation because of being poor, and being poor because of being unaccredited, is co-operation. By uniting for action, sixty-five of these colleges have increased what author Hill calls their "visibility." As a group, they have succeeded in removing their own feelings of having been "forgotten." Together, these members of the Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges, Inc., enrolled 30,581 students in 1958-59 and had assets of approximately \$72,000,000. United, they have obtained Big Industry and Big Foundation assistance of very comforting sorts and dimensions. Divided, these assistances probably would not have been available to small individual colleges.

Their second idea was to find out where they stood, the better to plan for the future. As a whole group, CASC members tested their students and studied themselves critically. In brief, they found their students to be only a few points below the national average on a number of scales, and better on some other scales. Their colleges were doing an impressively efficient job in general, they found, in providing the greatest possible degree of lift for each individual student, and doing this through efficiency of operation rather than because of low faculty pay. Concentrating upon improvement on observed weaknesses, 24 of the 65 colleges retested their sophomores and seniors a year later and found substantial improvement. "This would indicate," Hill said, "that with relatively little additional expense in salaries and equipment, a more selective admissions policy, and more emphasis on academic guidance, these two curves (comparing small colleges and colleges in general) might be practically squeezed together."

Their third idea was and is the happy choice of an able and alert man to serve as president of the college. Much stress is placed on the need for a person who can select and encourage creative people, maintain a sensitivity to their needs and capabilities, communicate fully with faculty, students, and trustees alike, and lead the educational program of the college boldly and wisely.

Dedicated missionaries of the spirit that they are in general, the faculty members of these 65 colleges responded as warmly as might have been

expected to stimulating leadership. They needed only to be wanted and to be asked to develop more meaningful curriculums, to concentrate on learning theory and better teaching methods and materials, to write full and clear syllabuses of their courses, to rewrite the catalogue, to install honors programs for the better students, and so on and on through dozens of old, bold, and new ways to do their work better.

Students, too, found the climate of intentional academic improvement to be stimulating. Three colleges, for example, presented the test results to their student bodies, and immediately found that use of their libraries was greatly increased. One college actually had to increase its library space by 50 per cent.

Stimulation like this may be infectious for you, too. You will find this little book to be quotable, memorable, usable, regardless of whether you are in a small college, a middle-sized college, or a large college or university. These ideas would be equally applicable anywhere. CASC has an almost visible will to win. Its members have a will to move forward. They will co-operate. They will to deserve and finally to win accreditation. You will believe them when they say they expect accreditation to be merely the bottom rung on a ladder of achievement they expect to keep right on climbing. This use of education in its deeper meaning to advance the common welfare is *E Pluribus Unum* in its best national sense.

TRUMAN POUNCEY

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James Lewis Morrill, *The Ongoing State University*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1960. Pp. 143. \$3.50.

Next to the American public school system, the state university system may be the most important original contribution that the United States has made in the field of education. This unique system of higher education evolved in the last century, and during recent decades it has grown at a rapid pace. The Morrill Act of 1862, usually called the Land-Grant Act, was the great cornerstone and stimulant that set the stage for this rapid evolution. The approach of the Centennial of the Morrill Act and the retirement of several outstanding presidents of land-grant universities have led to the publication of significant books in the last few years on the history, problems, and programs of these institutions.

This book is an edition of significant speeches of James Lewis Morrill, who retired in 1960 as President of the University of Minnesota. Morrill has been a worthy leader and effective spokesman for American higher education during the last three decades. All of his experience has been in

land-grant universities. A graduate of Ohio State and a staff member there for several years, he served as President of the University of Wyoming before becoming President of Minnesota in 1945. Besides being an effective spokesman for higher education, he has been a builder, an adroit administrator, and an educational statesman of the first rank.

The manuscript for the book was prepared by the editor, Mrs. Peggy Harding Love, from the manuscripts of many speeches that President Morrill delivered while he was at Minnesota. The twelve short chapters are largely built around programs, problems, and issues that are paramount in the modern period. The editor has skillfully welded the various selections into a unity that makes of the book a clear and concise one. If the reader had not been told that the material had been prepared to be delivered from the platform, he would suspect it instantly. Each is set for a discourse of from twenty to thirty minutes on a significant and troublesome problem. Citations to facts, statistics, and the statements of the "great" are brief, pointed, and often pithy, just as one would expect to find in a balanced and objective discourse. The fundamental problem or proposition is clearly stated, the supporting evidence is promptly provided, and the point of view of the speaker is made clearly, concisely, and convincingly.

Naturally, the persistent, troublesome, unsolved problems that are forever pressing a university president in this hectic era are at the center of the book. Morrill quickly sets the historical background of the modern state university, explains its mission, its philosophy, and its heavy burdens and makes clear the place that the governing board and the central administration occupy in carrying it forward. He shows that it has developed as the "servant of the people" because of the demands and ambitions of the people of each state, as well as in response to the national needs as expressed in the Land-Grant Act, the Hatch Act, and in much recent legislation. Public service, as well as teaching and research, is a heavy obligation of this unique institution. The campus extends to the borders of the state and beyond.

Besides the history, program, and mission of the university, Morrill discusses the role of academic freedom and the responsibilities that go with it, the place of religion in a state university, the troublesome problem of intercollegiate athletics, the university's relations with its various "publics," the challenge to the alumni, the state's responsibility to the institution, relations with the federal government, and the shape of things to come. Like most men who have fought the long, hard battles for adequate state support, Morrill is most pessimistic when he faces the issue of the future. He seems to feel that it will be next to impossible to get the means to take care of the crushing load of the future. He realistically faces the alterna-

tives, but does not give us a clear pattern for action. He is an idealist, but a thirty-year struggle has made of him a pragmatist. He knows that there are no easy solutions, and that answers will be found, as in the past. They will arise out of experience, compromise, and adjusting to the realities of each local situation.

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Retention of Records: A Guide for Registrars and Admissions Officers in Collegiate Institutions. Prepared by the Committee on Office Management and Practices of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers. Athens, Ohio, 1960. Pp. v. + 50. \$1.50.

This report of an active committee is based upon information received in response to 729 questionnaires sent out to every other institution listed in *College and University*. The percentage of response with usable data was 83, a good showing for questionnaire responses from persons who get too many. The tables in Chapter II, which is a survey of programs in existence, are properly set for easy reading, are filled with data of value to any interested person, and serve to show the reader how his pattern of retention matches against those of 600 other office managers. A danger lies in putting much reliance upon matching the patterns of others: one may court mediocrity. To offset this danger of losing one's individuality in a mass of data or conforming to averages as if they were standards, the Committee has included a few quotations from colleges of different sizes, aims, reputation, etc.

Chapter III deals with legal implications. Since most of these depend upon state laws, the Committee has listed by states summaries of useful material from 21 states. The other 29 states have no laws governing retention of records in collegiate institutions. Several regional accrediting associations have emphasized the need of keeping records and have even made recommendations toward doing so.

Chapter IV is made up of two pages, one of general statements urging care and one of a definite plan for retention and destruction of specific materials used in admission, registration, and records. A bibliography including pamphlets and articles written since 1948 completes the report of the committee.

The Introduction contains a small amount of philosophy, a little flattery for registrars, and some advertisement for microfilming. Later there is an

attempt to interpret the table by use of such phrases as "we may note that," "it will be noted that," "it may be noted that," "it is felt that," "interested to note," "it is apparent that," all of which appear on a single page. Elsewhere the report is slightly wordy but perhaps necessarily so to call attention to interpretation of data for the superficial reader. The deep reader will find a great amount of data to consider for use in his local conditions.

The committee was composed of nine able persons, centrally located geographically. They should be commended for having produced a single report without including individual opinions.

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George N. Shuster, *Education and Moral Wisdom*. Foreword by Ordway Tead. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. Pp. ix + 146. \$3.50.

Collected here are thirteen speeches and essays by the man who was, first, a well-known editor of *The Commonwealth*, and then for twenty years president of Hunter College. Any man who can fill both these jobs well is worth attending to; from him we can properly expect both education and moral wisdom, and we are not disappointed.

Regrettably, the format is a common one for doing honor to respected men in the academic world who are not productive scholars. It usually comprises, as in this instance, the papers and talks produced for specific occasions, and usually the larger part of each item is routinely predictable. The individual flavor of the speaker may be entirely hidden by the rhetoric, or it may come through to reward us—something like hoping for clams in chowder.

It is therefore a pleasure to report that Dr. Shuster is an honest cook. He has something to say, and he says it well. His common subject is the function of the college, which he believes demands a realistic appraisal both of students and of the world they will work in. Thus he is equally critical of two widespread myths about college: the supposed vocational effectiveness of professional education, and the supposed moral effectiveness of liberal education. In spite of the limitations of its format, this is a provocative and stimulating book.

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Oliver C. Carmichael, *Universities: Commonwealth and American*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. xx + 390. \$6.00.

Oliver Carmichael has given a clear, challenging analysis of the basic problems confronting higher education in our time in his book *Universities: Commonwealth and American*. This is not just another report; rather, it is a document which should receive the serious consideration of all educators.

Here is a book which deserves careful reading; and one must be aware, at the outset, of Carmichael's aim. First of all, he has chosen to discuss higher learning in the British Commonwealth as well as in these United States. He does so because he feels that all these institutions have a common factor by reason of a common language, and common background and ancestry, and all face certain common problems. And in search for solutions to the problems, one profits, according to Carmichael, by common experiences as well as by those which are diverse. Upon this background of higher learning in the Commonwealth and the United States, the author attempts to unite breadth and depth by presenting a moving rather than a still picture. He sketches the past history of higher education, he reviews the present, and he comments on the future. Much in the book is descriptive and statistical; yet it essays analysis, criticism, and conclusions. This is a mighty task for an author to propose to himself. It is our opinion that Carmichael has brought his experience and educational statesmanship to bear upon this task in a masterful manner.

This is not to say that we are in complete agreement with all of the author's conclusions. This reviewer finds his final proposal for a Commonwealth-American Commission on University Education a limping solution to the vast problems which he has described and analyzed with such insight. But, perhaps, even Dr. Carmichael is not overly sanguine in this solution for he remarks, "If soundly conceived and composed of top leadership from the several countries involved, it is possible that substantial progress could be made." (p. 340) Perhaps what Carmichael is saying is that all must become convinced of the absolute necessity for seeking solutions of the problems which he has so clearly pointed up.

While the author has been selective in his choice of the elements which give understanding and meaning to higher education, this reviewer is of the opinion that Carmichael has been eminently successful in the picture which he presents. It is the logic and the unity of this presentation which make this work a worth-while contribution to the field. And the book must be read as a whole if its full impact is to be obtained.

After presenting the backgrounds of higher education in the earlier chapters, Carmichael proceeds to discuss the nature and aims of higher ed-

ucation, the organization and the finance of higher education. He spends considerable time on the subject of professional education, and his discussion at this point is extremely well done. Having laid this background, Carmichael proceeds to the problems and prospects of higher education for the future. In some thirty pages he presents an analysis of higher education which deserves the serious study of those mindful of its needs and problems.

Carmichael points out that the rapid growth of higher education has produced a series of problems. The various attempts to meet the needs of students has produced a bewildering number of courses. There is a serious danger that as student numbers increase, the number of courses will increase. This seems inevitable in view of the fact that there is lack of educational focus and confusion in aims as well as the fact that colleges have been notoriously conservative in undertaking curriculum reforms. The author points this need up as the first major issue in all English-speaking universities.

His next issue is akin to this provision for the gifted student. Increasing enrollment makes it more difficult to give attention to the few with great potential; yet the search for talent and the increased importance of the gifted individual to society become more apparent as our era becomes more and more competitive.

In the course of the book, the author makes much of the fact that there has been in the recent past a transition from private to public support of higher education. He points out that there have been certain implications in this transfer from an emphasis on private to public support of our institutions. Universities must be more aware of social needs, more responsive to the requests of government, and more concerned about maximum efficiency in their operation. While it is true that our universities have emphasized science and technology for some years, world governments have seen the need for strengthening these areas. Governmental support of these phases of higher education has eclipsed that provided in other areas. And while no one fully aware of contemporary issues would quarrel with the need of emphasizing this phase of education, this should not obscure the possibility that present trends may actually change the very character and purpose of university education. Dr. Carmichael's observation in this matter is much to the point:

Since Sputnik appeared, advancement in science and technology has seemed imperative as a matter of national and international security. But ideas are more powerful than satellites or hydrogen bombs. The ability of the West to prevail, if open conflict with Russia should overtake us, would depend upon the strength of the conviction of Western peoples as well as upon their weapon potential and military skill. Thus, ideas and concepts which are basic to convictions become indispensable equipment in the arsenal of those who would

defend Western ideals. It is the Arts Faculties that have a responsibility for providing this equipment.

As the author brings his study to a conclusion, it is obvious that drastic measures and reforms are necessary in higher education. On the one hand, success in the modern world depends upon the quality and aims of educational programs; on the other hand, our universities are hindered by traditional procedures, curricula, and vague goals. *Universities: Commonwealth and American* will startle the complacent and challenge the interested. It should be read by all who have a stake in higher education of our time.

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Edward Hodnett, *Which College for You?* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. Pp. 115. \$2.95.

It was probably inevitable that the "do-it-yourself" craze would invade the area of college admissions. At present, there is a whole spate of "how-to-get-in" books, and the field promises to support almost as many varied handbooks as the old reliable field of Freshman English has done for years.

Which College for You? is one of the latest contributions to the field. The author, presently Assistant to the President of the Dow Corning Corporation, has a professionally academic background that gives decided authority to his advice. He has been a professor of English at Ohio University, President of Fenn College, Vice-President of the University of Massachusetts, Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences, Newark University, and a faculty member of Columbia University.

Dr. Hodnett describes his book as "a practical guide—an Action Program." The audience to which he specifically addresses his book is the high school junior in the fall term of his junior year. He has, furthermore, tested his text on a group of students from the Senior High School, Midland, Michigan, and has had advice from one college and four high school administrators. He thoughtfully provides charts to assist the students in the various analyses which he recommends to them.

In general, Dr. Hodnett advises the student to analyze his goals, make a personal profile ("self-analysis"), and make his own profiles of various colleges on the basis of their offering the best fulfillment of the individual goals set up. The last step in the "action program" is for the student to correlate his personal profile with the various college profiles he has made.

On this basis, it is believed, the student will select the college best suited to his needs.

The advice Dr. Hodnett gives is excellent. Section 3 under the chapter on "Goals" is an especially effective discourse on the real meaning of education in the life of an individual. It has the added virtue of being easily read and understood by high school juniors. In the chapter on "Research," however, the advice, while still excellent, is unfortunately beyond the competence of high school juniors either to acquire unaided or to evaluate. Even professional guidance counselors would find difficulty in successfully completing the research recommended. High school juniors, for example, are asked to rate (on a 4-0 scale) the colleges in which they are interested. Among the twenty items covered are the following: teaching standards, graduate school acceptance, faculty teaching loads, faculty salaries, faculty morale, caliber of administration, intellectual climate, etc. The author does admit that the answers to some of these queries may be difficult to find. This reviewer believes it would be virtually impossible for a high school junior to obtain reliable answers in this area. Even accrediting agencies sometimes find difficulty in getting clear-cut, decisive replies.

Readers of *Which College for You?* are also advised to visit colleges for first-hand impressions. Nearly all admissions officers will agree with this advice. However, the added suggestions that the student stay overnight in college dorms, interview the academic dean, sit in on classes of all academic levels, and query the professors, etc., provoke a deep shudder in this reviewer. Dorm space in most residence colleges is now at a premium, and the thought of a brash young high school junior interrogating a senior math professor after forty-five minutes in a Symbolic Logic class does not seem to be one of the most promising recruiting suggestions of the season. Admissions officers are anxious to give prospective candidates the fullest information about their own institutions. The responsibility for giving such information, however, is primarily theirs. One who made a regular practice of channeling high school visitors into administrative offices, classrooms, and faculty offices would soon incur the wrath not only of fellow administrative officers, but of the faculty senate as well.

"Do-it-yourself" books, however good, are not the best preparation for seeking admission to college. More and better trained guidance officers would help not only the high school student much more, but the student's parents and college admissions boards as well.

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William K. Selden, *Accreditation: A Struggle over Standards in Higher Education*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. Pp. xv + 138. \$2.50.

This volume on the history of accreditation will be of interest to all who are concerned with higher education in the United States. In describing the practices followed in attempts to maintain academic standards in universities and colleges in the Western world from medieval times to the present, the author does not limit his role to that of a chronicler, but rather serves as an analyst, critic, and commentator. The feelings of a substantial number of university and college trustees, presidents, deans, professors, students, and benefactors which have rankled under the regulations and admonitions of accrediting agencies should be assuaged by the insight that Dr. Selden provides into the *raison d'être* for accreditation.

The book summarizes the gradual shift in control of European universities from the church to civil authorities, culminating in all-powerful national Ministries of Education. This is contrasted with the practice in areas that are, or have been, in the British Empire, where only a few universities are authorized by charter to examine students and grant degrees. Other universities merely prepare their students for examination by the chartered universities.

Dr. Selden compares the relatively simple situation in Europe and the British Empire with that in colonial and early United States, where he aptly describes colleges and universities as in a state of "educational anarchy." He explains why many, far too many, small denominational colleges followed in the wake of westward expansion, each assuming the rights of a charter to grant degrees and all free of any federal control.

It has been said that man seeks to satisfy his desires with the least possible effort; a corollary of this is that college students seek their degrees on the same principle. Whether or not our early American colleges accepted this corollary, it is clear from Dr. Selden's exposition that in the keen competition with each other for students, many colleges lowered their academic standards. Easy admissions and easy requirements for a degree were offered as inducements in recruiting students. American higher education in our early history developed an unsavory reputation abroad.

The crusade to repair the damage to higher education was begun not by federal or state governments, but in the early American tradition by the schools themselves. Dr. Selden describes the development of our six regional associations beginning with the New England Association of Schools and Colleges in 1885, and their subsequent actions in the field of accreditation. Early accreditation practices were directed primarily toward standards for admission and later turned to standards in such matters as

teaching staff and requirements for degrees. Today the regional associations are continuing to maintain and raise standards of member institutions by means of self-study programs, associated with accreditation, which point the way to self-improvement, and by serving as a counterbalancing force to pressures that are often exerted to subvert colleges from their primary goals.

In addition to his description and commentary on the regional associations, Dr. Selden summarizes the growth of professional societies and their entry into the accreditation of colleges and the licensing of graduates. He points out the signal success achieved by the American Medical Association in improving the training and elevating the status of medical doctors, which established a precedent other professional societies are eager to follow.

Dr. Selden rightly states that we have not yet learned to judge the quality of a college. The only major attempt to classify colleges in this country into quality groups evoked a violent reaction. The aim of accreditation is not to classify colleges, however, but rather to insure that academic standards are maintained at or above a reasonable minimum and to aid institutions in self-improvement.

That the American accreditation program has served higher education well is amply documented by Dr. Selden's admirably written and authoritative monograph.

EDWARD M. PALMQUIST

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In the Journals

E. T.

The subject of the Summer 1960 issue of *Daedalus*, the Journal of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, is "The Russian Intelligentsia." The "concern is not with Russian attainments, which are undeniable, but with those aspects of Russian intellectual life which to thoughtful observers pose problems and give rise to legitimate differences of opinion." In the nineteenth century, social thought was largely dominated by the problem of the relationship between the propertied and the nonpropertied classes, but in our century the critical problem is the relationship between the bureaucrats and the intellectuals with knowledge taking the place of property. While the problems of the Russian "intelligentsia" may be especially acute and not the same as those of the intellectuals of the West, this problem of social relationship is one that emerges in every modern country and "in some measure affects everyone concerned with the survival of liberal values and critical attitudes."

The article on "Observations on Soviet University Students" is written by David Burg, who was born in Moscow, was a university student there for five years, and has also been a student in English universities. In the better-known Soviet universities, the majority of the students are the children of the intelligentsia. As they are a hereditary Soviet elite, it would seem that they would be conformists interested in the preservation of existing conditions; but there is irritation or outright hostility to Russia's present-day social and political structure and official Soviet comments indicate that "unhealthy attitudes" exist. These stem from the division of the Soviet elite into professional people and party bureaucrats. The professional elite have neither political nor personal rights.

The division starts in the university where ten to fifteen per cent prefer to concentrate on "social work." They are appointed to Komsomol positions by the Party Bureau. Their activity in the Komsomol with such assignments as the repression of "nonconformity" in everyday life does not leave them enough time for the academic schedule necessary for professional training. They emerge as the professional party bureaucrats. The basic cause of resentment among the students is official meddling in private affairs with the attempt to organize all aspects of the life of Russian youth; in short, the demands of "personal sacrifices for the sake of social welfare." The opposition is usually passive and the escape is through evasion. Many of the Komsomol workers preach the rule of "personal sacrifice for the sake of social welfare" but do not practice it. This encourages conscious opposition and prosecution begins. The dispersion among the opponents of the regime is great and the opinion is far from unanimous

as to a desirable alternative to totalitarianism; but the political opposition is united in rejecting dictatorship and in denying the party's monopoly of power with total domination by the party bureaucrats and the party's claims to the possession of absolute truth on all matters. Mr. Burg describes the three principal opposition tendencies among Soviet students and the younger intelligentsia: neo-Bolshevism or neo-Leninism, liberal socialism, and anti-socialism. While we can be optimistic with the knowledge that anti-totalitarian currents exist within the young intelligentsia, the fact remains that the real police strength is behind the bureaucrats.

Bruce Catton, in an article entitled "Individual Responsibility" in the June 1960 issue of the *Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors*, points out how expensive it can be when individuals in a democracy evade an issue because it is difficult to handle. In 1860, the machinery of the democracy was available to handle the issue of the institution of slavery just as it is available to handle thorny problems today; but the machinery was not used. It does not work automatically. It was just too much trouble for the ordinary American in 1860 to sit down and think things through and then proceed with intelligence and good will. It was easier to feel, to turn the emotions loose, and surrender to the comforting feeling that things were going to work themselves out somehow if they were just given time. Evading the question simply means that the answer is going to be provided by somebody else. The decision will be made, but it will be not so much a reasoned decision of the people as a decision forced by circumstance. Mr. Catton describes how the evasion of responsibility led to a situation at the end of 1860 where a major and a captain had the authority to decide whether a war would begin. In a democracy the individual cannot let himself feel that someone in far-away Washington will settle all of the big problems. The people must attack the hard business of getting themselves ready to face a changing world. Today we face problems that are too explosive to work themselves out with time. They involve the nations and races of the world. "The solutions will come out of what we are and what we think and what we value. We ourselves are responsible for the part America is going to play. If we evade that responsibility . . . , it is almost a certainty that the tragedy of 1860 will be repeated."

The May 7 and May 21, 1960, issues of *School and Society* view the national and the international scene of "Racial Segregation in Education," respectively. The national view is taken by educators in areas that are most affected by segregation and includes the remarks of U. S. Senator Herman E. Talmadge of Georgia upon introducing a revised version of his pro-

posed constitutional amendment to restore to the states exclusive control over public education.

As the Editor, William W. Brickman of the School of Education of New York University, points out, the proponents of segregated education "may gain some time at the cost of universal respect. In the long run, the forces for human equality will have to prevail in an era when long-submerged peoples are asserting themselves with signal success." The term segregation should not be applied to separations that are temporary and informal such as that when pupils are put into different classrooms because of varying abilities to learn, nor that when the school is located in a community where the residents are of one race. Segregation is a separation that is permanent and systematic.

Virgil A. Clift of Morgan State College in Baltimore, Maryland, reviews "The History of Racial Segregation in American Education." The Negro has been a part of the American scene from the time the nation was discovered. Mr. Clift examines the economical and social forces outside the Negro community at different periods in American history which have determined to a large extent the development of education for the Negro. The account is an unemotional and factual study of the opening of schools for Negroes, the "separate but equal" system of the South which remained separate and unequal from 1896 to 1954, and the progress toward desegregation since 1954.

James W. Vander Zanden of Duke University in "Foundations of the Second Reconstruction" enumerates the reasons for the weakened Southern position since the time of the First Reconstruction in its struggle to retain a free hand in the management of its racial affairs. The dividing line has been shifted deeper into Dixie. No major political party can concede to Southern demands today. The embarrassment to the United States Government in international affairs caused by racial discrimination also weakens the Southern position. Industrialization and urbanization of the South make changes in a caste pattern that arose in an agrarian-paternal society. The South's fight against integration can only be defensive.

Chester C. Travelstead, a Southerner who is now Dean of the College of Education of the University of New Mexico, analyzes the main factors behind "Southern Attitudes toward Racial Integration." Even those Southerners currently living in that area are disturbed and dissatisfied with many of their economic conditions. Slavery started with the white man's desire and willingness to build his own economic status at the expense of the Negro. The fact that this attitude is still prevalent in the South constitutes one of the chief deterrents to racial integration. A second factor is the preferred social status of the whites. Mr. Travelstead compares the Southern "die-hards" with the French "aristocrats" who chose death rather

than life on an equal basis with the peasants of France. This group "must have support—real or concocted—in their contention that they are better than or superior to somebody else or some other group. . . . The field of psychology has revealed much about the inner personal satisfaction gained by the insecure or immature person, if and when he is given a special privilege or is included in a circle or group not open to everyone." Mr. Travelstead points out that the relationship existing between the white employer and his Negro servant in the South is usually one of affection, with the employer making most of the decisions for those who work for him. But most of the Southern Negroes are no longer satisfied with such arrangements. Since the 1954 ruling of the U. S. Supreme Court on school desegregation, many Southern whites have suggested the mass moving of the Negroes to the North as a solution to the problem, although for many years they have discouraged such a move because it would take away cheap labor. Mr. Travelstead adds, "They may very well fear the very good possibility of retribution." His third major point related to the Southerner's attitude toward racial integration is the psychological one of the South opposing other national and international causes not related in any way to segregation. He compares this with the sulking child. There is considerable evidence that many of the Southern leaders would not object to racial integration but they must not lose face and they think that such a move would defeat them in the next election. We are waiting for the South to change voluntarily, but many believe that only decisive court and administrative action at the Federal level can bring order out of chaos. Even much of the South would welcome such action, just as the sulky child finds comfort in returning from isolationism.

William H. Robinson of Hampton Institute in Virginia reviews the history of "Desegregation in Higher Education in the South." To do this he divides the area into three sections: the border states, including two Southwestern states and the District of Columbia; the upper Southern states; and the "hard core" states. The results in some states are encouraging, but in other states the progress is most disappointing. Only in the District of Columbia is desegregation of higher education accomplished, and not even in the District is the ultimate goal of full integration realized.

Carl F. Hansen, Superintendent of Schools in Washington, D.C., explains "Desegregation in the District of Columbia: A Developmental Process." Preparation for desegregation started as early as 1933 when Negroes were admitted to Federal recreation areas. Many other breaks in the racial barriers occurred in the following years. The superintendent of schools had blueprinted the processes of desegregation so that within eight days following the Supreme Court decision of 1954 the District adopted a policy of pupil assignment by residence and placement of personnel on the

basis of merit. There were some academic and behavior problems because there was a higher incidence of social and educational deprivation among Negro pupils and because some teachers were not experienced in dealing with children from culturally and economically handicapped homes. But a study of the academic standards of the schools during the past five years makes it clear that Negro pupils will respond to improved educational opportunities. In a school system where 71.6% of the pupils are Negro, five of the median grade equivalents on six standard tests that were given in 1958-59 were at or above the national norm. In order to educate the maximum and to provide better services class sizes have been reduced in the elementary grades and more special classes for slow learners and the emotionally disturbed have been provided. A plan for ability grouping has been set up. Honors groups start at the fourth grade and grades 1 to 12 have the general group and the basic groups for severe retardation. The major emphasis is now being placed on direct and systematic study of the basic subjects rather than large-unit or core-type instruction. Desegregation is not designed to accommodate the needs of the Negro pupil, but rather to take care of the needs of all children. This can occur to the best advantage when the divisive influence of segregation does not exist.

Alfred McClung Lee of Brooklyn College discusses "The Impact of Segregated Housing on Public Schools" in his explanation of the attempts of the Board of Education of New York City to develop "racially integrated schools." The Board has accomplished little integration with its "permissive" or any other type of zoning. New buildings in some fringe areas have helped. Very little has been done with the plan for teacher reassignment but this would be most helpful in equalizing instructional quality and in providing interethnic staffs.

The issue devoted to the International Scene is concerned primarily with racial segregation in South Africa. Separate schools exist for the Asiatics and the Russians in the Asian republics of the U.S.S.R. Although official segregation of the Eta in Japan has been abolished by legislation in Japan, the unofficial variety still exists. Other instances of segregation are scarce. Bodies of the United Nations have repeatedly made statements against the practice of racial discrimination. In the years to come, nations will find it increasingly difficult to defend discriminatory practices in education. It is not a question of whether they will be abolished, but how and when. Mr. Brickman concludes, "All the schools of the world will be available in time to all the peoples of the world."

The April 1960 issue of *The Superior Student* reports on the Conference on the Gifted Negro Student held in Baton Rouge, Louisiana, in February 1960. The conference sought ways of coping with the handicaps

imposed upon youth from deprived environments. Not only are the basic tools for intellectual growth needed (in one panel it was "pointed out that the average reading level among entering Negro students in college is at grade seven and one-half"), but the problem of insufficient motivation arises because of unfavorable cultural environments and the low level of expectancy in the home, the school, and the community. Remedial work for good minds that have been unevenly developed and handicapped by a background of meager cultural opportunity may be related to an Honors program. John Hope Franklin, a Negro scholar who is Chairman of the Department of History at Brooklyn College, gave the opening address, "To Educate all the Jeffersonians." The transition from the Jeffersonian commitment to intellectual excellence and superiority to the Jacksonian commitment to broadening educational opportunity with little regard for intellectual excellence implied that it was undemocratic to give special attention to the academically talented. Only since the last war have institutions given systematic attention to the superior student. For the white, the early Jacksonian demand for equality in education was a perversion and a distortion in demanding the same education for the moron that was provided for the genius; but the view, supported in law, has been that no black person should have an education whether he be a moron or a genius. If the problem of the discovery and encouragement of the academically talented white in the United States is a difficult and complex one, it is especially difficult and incredibly complex where Negroes are concerned. The tremendous emphasis on physical facilities for the Negro schools in recent years has actually stood in the way of achieving a sound academic program. The improvement of salaries is a significant development, but it does not necessarily contribute to the intellectual climate. The academic and intellectual disadvantage of the Negro has made it possible for only a limited number to secure the Ph.D. degree. Pressure is put on the president of every public institution of higher education for Negroes to secure accreditation in order to build a college for Negroes that is equal to the college for whites. His recruiting is restricted to the Negro Ph.D. who is thus successful in securing rank and salary completely out of line with his experience and his standing in his profession. There is the tragic possibility that his values might become distorted and his estimate of himself might be unduly inflated in the process. A serious distraction for the gifted Negro student is that as he becomes more aware of the social order and his degraded status he may turn too much of his attention and energy to it. He must try to achieve some respectable status in the community and, at the same time, keep his sights on the ideal of excellence and superiority in the field of scholarship. The young Negro genius has neither the voice nor the understanding to assert himself. If America is to remain strong, programs

must be developed and maintained to utilize the talents of *all* her citizens. The panels took up such problems as the development of academic motivation for people who have been deprived of intellectual stimuli and the difficulty of identifying the talented among culturally deprived groups when existing tests have a cultural bias.

The interpretation of tests is the subject of the January 1960 issue of the *Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors*. Elizabeth Hagen, Professor of Education at Teachers College warns that test results incorrectly interpreted are not only useless but may do considerable harm, in an article entitled "Errors in the Interpretation of Test Scores." Nageswari Rajaratnam of the Bureau of Educational Research of the University of Illinois writes on "Perplexities in Prediction from Standardized Test Results" and suggests that the test-user should use her knowledge to determine the usefulness of the norms and other information provided by the test-constructor. She should collect her own information about norms, reliability, and other important qualities as it applies to those she is testing. "The Role of Tests in College Admission" is discussed by Paul B. Diederich of the Research Division of the Educational Testing Service. He states that only about 75 per cent of the students who are admitted to college indiscriminately will make the grade while about 95 per cent of the students who are selected by the full Board treatment will be successful. A reading comprehension test will usually come closer to total scores on the whole battery than any other test. It will pick out good and poor writers better than the essay test. Not only do you get a more consistent score on the grading of a single paper, but there is much variability in student writing from one paper to another. Good readers tend to be good writers. An admissions counselor will find some familiar phrases in Virginia Bailard's article on "Interpreting Test Results to Parents and Students." Virginia Bailard, Supervisor of Guidance and Psychological Services in Long Beach, California, points out that there is so much ego involvement in academic aptitude and achievement that the utmost in tact must be utilized whether test results are high, average, or low. She then records an interview where the student, the parents, and the counselor are present.

In "Prestige and the Teacher" which appears in the March 12, 1960, issue of *School and Society*, R. M. Gummere, Jr. of Bard College, says it is only a superstition that American school teachers once enjoyed decidedly better prestige than they do now. There have always been a few distinguished personalities, but the typical teacher was quite different. In the 17th century, it might be a greenhorn putting in two or three years in the

schoolhouse before becoming a minister. In the 18th century, many of the teachers had come from England as indentured servants and did not bring as high a price as a shoemaker, a cooper, a mason, a carpenter, or a barber. In the 19th century, the schools were staffed by pedagogical hoboes who were not respected by the community and often had poor moral character. Women came into the schools as teachers after the Civil War because they would work for a pittance and were of a better class than the tramp teachers. The result was to establish a separation between things intellectual and the rough business of life. Most of the teachers of the schools of old were ill-trained and they did not earn for teaching any prestige. Teachers today can get greater prestige only by earning it.

Reported to Us

M. M. C.

Ronald L. Cherry, formerly assistant professor of economics, became Registrar of Juniata College in September. Mr. Cherry, who joined the department of economics and business administration two years ago, will succeed Hans Zbinden, who will return to the classroom as full-time instructor in German.

Lt. Col. Virgil J. O'Connor, Registrar at the U. S. Air Force Academy, has been nominated by President Eisenhower for appointment as permanent Registrar at the Academy. The nomination is subject to confirmation by the Senate. Colonel O'Connor has held the position of Registrar since December 1956. Before that assignment he was Director of Evaluation at the Academy. From 1950 to 1952 he served with Headquarters 20th Air Force in the Far East.

In October 1959 William J. O'Connell became Registrar of the College of the Holy Cross. He succeeded Bernard J. McManus.

On June 30 Emma Deters retired as Registrar at the University of Buffalo. Miss Deters has long been a leader in AACRAO and has been active in the association in many areas over the years. She has served on numerous committees both as chairman and committee member. She held the offices of Second Vice-President in 1929-30, Treasurer 1934-37, First Vice-President in 1939-40 and 1951-52, and President in 1952-53. At the 1960 meeting in Los Angeles she was elected to honorary membership in recognition of her outstanding contribution to the Association. Immediately upon her retirement she became Special Adviser in the office of the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences at the University of Buffalo.

As Special Adviser, Miss Deters will be responsible for keeping current information about graduate fellowship opportunities at the University of Buffalo and elsewhere and bringing this information to the attention of departments and students. She will make systematic studies and reviews of programs of subsidy and assistance to graduate students at the University. Her work will also include the review and evaluation of credentials of foreign students who are applicants for graduate study and advice to the foreign students on such matters as immigrant status, income tax obligations, etc. She will serve as Fulbright Adviser for the University of Buffalo and be the responsible officer for the Exchange Visitors' program.

On September 1 Thomas A. Garrett became Dean of Administration at Assumption College, Worcester, Massachusetts. Daniel F. MacDonald succeeded him as the new Registrar at St. Michael's College. Mr. Garrett's duties at Assumption College will include work in the admissions area.

Mrs. Bernice Garrett Headline retired last June from her position as University Evaluating Officer and Veterans Counselor at Teachers College, Columbia University, a post she had held since 1950. In 1913 Mrs. Headline was appointed Registrar of Flora Stone Mather College of Western Reserve University and held this post until 1928. She was active in the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers from 1918 to 1928 and was Treasurer of the Association from 1926 to 1928.

The University of Illinois will approve no privately operated student rooming house unless the owner agrees to make its facilities available to all students without discrimination with respect to race or religion, according to Provost Gordon N. Ray. In 1958, the University issued a "Code of Fair Educational Practice." It is now adopting the addition to Section IX of the Code as an earnest of its willingness to accept due responsibility in this crucial area of public concern. These provisions do not apply to a house which is the private home of the owner and in which no more than three rooms are rented.

Radcliffe College and the Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges have announced jointly a new educational experiment for able women students to be called the Scholars Program. The program has been made possible by a gift to Radcliffe of \$155,000 through the Taconic Foundation of New York.

Over a five-year period, the program will provide fellowship funds for exceptional women students from smaller and less-known colleges. These students will pursue a course of graduate study leading to the Ph.D. degree at Radcliffe. Each fellowship will cover a period of three years. The third year may involve, when circumstances warrant, travel abroad or in this country for the purpose of research.

In the fall of 1960, six students began study in the Radcliffe Graduate School under this plan. They were nominated by their respective colleges on the basis of their past performance, future promise, graduate record tests, and an interview by a Radcliffe representative. The following year, eight additional students will be chosen and ten will be selected each year thereafter.

Beginning with the academic year 1960-61, Harvard will have two categories of Teaching Fellows (graduate students who help instruct undergraduates as section teachers, laboratory assistants, tutors, or advisers). Graduate students who have not completed their residence requirements will be eligible for Teaching Fellowships (junior rate) at a full-time salary of \$4,200 (no man may be a Teaching Fellow for more than 3/5 time or for more than four years). They will at the same time become eligible for a "Staff Tuition Scholarship," not to exceed \$800 or the amount of their tuition, and this scholarship will be awarded by the Graduate School individually and on the basis of need. It is our expectation that well over 90 per cent of the Teaching Fellows in this category will qualify for these new scholarships.

Graduate students who, on the other hand, have already completed their residence requirements will be eligible for Teaching Fellowships (senior rate) at a full-time salary of \$5,400. They will also be eligible for "Staff Tuition Scholarships" up to \$200 (the full tuition rate for men who have finished their residence requirements). The distinction between these two classes of Teaching Fellows is based on the general difference between them in maturity, academic progress, and experience in teaching.

Both Elmira College students and faculty are working harder since the inauguration in fall 1959 of a curricular change whereby each student takes four 4-hour courses, instead of five 3-hour courses. This conclusion arose from a progress report on "the use of the fourth hour" at a recent meeting of the Elmira Chapter of the American Association of University Professors. The four-course program, voted upon by the faculty after two years of intensive study, was designed as a step toward "improving the quality of instruction and increasing the personal responsibility of the student." Uses of the fourth hour, as reported by representatives from each college division, ranged from "more emphasis on written and oral reports" to "time for relating the subject matter to other areas of learning."

Yeshiva University's Stern College for Women has instituted an "early decision" plan for admissions this year. Applicants with superior three-year high school records, acceptable College Entrance Examination Board aptitude test scores, and satisfactory personal interviews will receive notification of admission during the first semester of their senior year provided their documents are received by the college no later than January 1. Announcement of the "early decision" plan for America's only liberal arts college for women under Jewish sponsorship was made by the Committee of Admissions of Stern College for Women. It follows by two

years the institution of such a plan by Yeshiva College, the men's liberal arts undergraduate college of Yeshiva University.

The new procedure was developed to help applicants decide on a college early in the year, to save the expense of multiple applications, and to lessen "senior year tension." From the point of view of the College, the Admissions Office will be better able to predict the size of the incoming class and to fill places earlier in the year.

Michigan State University received a Kresge Foundation Grant of \$500,000 toward a requested amount of \$1,500,000 for construction of a library building for Michigan State University—Oakland. The \$500,000 was made available to permit start of construction. The Kresge Trustees intend to consider subsequent grants. The structure when completed will accommodate 1,100 students at study desks, as compared with 150 in the present temporary library. The new structure not only will provide study space, which is already inadequate, but will free the present library for equally acutely-needed faculty offices.

The Ford Foundation awarded 151 fellowships in business administration and economics to graduate students and professors at 43 universities for the 1960-61 academic year. The fellowships, the fifth annual series financed by the Foundation, are part of a Foundation program to increase the number of college and university teachers in business and economics and to encourage research on significant problems in these fields.

In 1958 the National Association of Foreign Student Advisers inaugurated the practice of publishing occasional studies and papers of interest and value to those working in the field of international educational exchange. Three series of papers have been planned: (1) a general series, (2) a series of studies in the field of teaching English as a second language, and (3) a series of reports of professional experience abroad. Mrs. Vera Laska has published a paper entitled "Reference Works on the Evaluation of Foreign Education," which gives detailed information concerning reference books available for the evaluation of foreign educational systems classified into three categories:

1. Reference books on the evaluation of foreign credentials or transcripts.
2. Works describing the educational systems in foreign countries without offering concrete recommendations as to the equivalencies in terms of American credits.
3. Directories of the institutions of higher learning in the world.

Mrs. Laska, as the Admissions Officer for Foreign Students at the University of Chicago, is well acquainted with the problems of evaluating credentials of applicants from many countries of the world, which still ranks as one of the most troublesome aspects of exchange of students among countries. NAFSA hopes that this compilation of resources available in this field will be of help to Foreign Student Advisers and Admissions Officers throughout the United States.

Copies of Mrs. Laska's paper as well as other publications of the National Association of Foreign Student Advisers may be secured by writing that Association at 500 Riverside Drive, New York 27, New York.

"The Individual or the Mass" is a report of the Joint Committee of the High School-College Relations Committees of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. The years since World War II have brought a host of changes to American education, changes that have centered for the most part in the welfare of the individual student. Rapidly disappearing are these old sacrosanct ideas: that all students, regardless of intellectual ability, must progress in locked step from grade to grade in all subjects; that separation by intellectual ability is undemocratic; that intellectual capacity as measured by tests must be kept secret; and that a set number of units or credits in specified courses must precede college entrance.

Typical of the improvements in education during the past fifteen years are: expansion of guidance and counseling services; increased communication between schools and colleges; attention to subject-matter articulation on all levels; greater acceptance and use of objective test data as a supplement to guidance and counseling; introduction in both high school and college of honors and advanced placement courses for the intellectually gifted; special programs to improve teachers and teaching in many subjects, especially mathematics, physics, and English; enlarged loan and scholarship funds for needy students; and acceptance of the importance of good education to the national welfare.

Many other exciting developments could be listed in the field of education. Almost all of these advances and improvements have emphasized the growing importance of the individual student and the necessity of promoting the fullest intellectual growth of a student according to his interests and capacities. As exciting as these gains are, it is a question if they can be maintained and enhanced in the next decade, when a vast increase in the number of college-bound students will occur. This flood of students will magnify any weaknesses or shortcomings in our present programs.

Toward the end of the past decade, it became increasingly apparent that some of these improvements were bringing in their wake some disadvan-

tages that threatened to outweigh the advantages. In our widely heralded search for the gifted and talented, are we creating the impression that it is only the intellectually or academically talented we seek? Are we at the same time suggesting that this special kind of talent is the only kind of talent that is important? Are we equating a general goodness or excellence of character or personality with superior intellectual intelligence?

Do our students realize that there are many kinds of excellence and many kinds of intelligence and that, although educational institutions put a special premium on intellectual ability, the world at large recognizes and rewards other kinds of ability? Or are we making second-class citizens out of students who have special talents in the performing arts, in working with people, in working with their hands, or in solving the practical problems of everyday life? Do our programs operate in such a way that they emphasize the dignity and worth of each individual student and avoid implications that encourage a false stratification of students?

In our praise of programs that separate by intellectual ability, are we forcing schools that lack adequate finances and personnel to overreach themselves just so they can get on the bandwagon? At the same time, are we encouraging students to overreach their abilities? Are admission officers emphasizing marks so much that students avoid honors courses so they can present more high marks?

There is evidence that we are falling into some of these traps. As admission becomes increasingly competitive at more and more colleges, will some of the old rigidities return? Already some faculties have announced a future date at which firm requirements in mathematics and language will be required for admission. Will this trend increase to the detriment of intellectually able students with irregular programs of achievement or with small rural school experience? Will national testing programs replace the judgment of individual teachers as evidenced by marks?

These are a few of the concerns which occupied the members of the Joint Committee on School and College Relations of the AACRAO and the NASSP at their fifth annual meeting held in Chicago in January 1960. From these many concerns, the Joint Committee selected three for special comment:

Subject-Matter Articulation. Since World War II subject-matter articulation has become a favorite topic for educators who like to write, speak, or debate, and rightly so, for no segment of education has witnessed more or greater changes than this. Happily the changes range up and down the entire ladder of education. Some elementary schools have dared to abolish grade groupings and establish groupings by aptitude and interest, to introduce languages and mathematics at lower grade levels, and to act on the simple truth that reading and comprehension aren't rigidly tied to age.

Some high schools have fractured the educational lock step by sectioning by ability, by introducing honors or advanced placement courses, by integrating courses with junior high schools so that repetitive learning experiences are eliminated, and by encouraging the intellectually able and mature students to seek admission to college after three years of work. Some colleges have eliminated rigid entrance requirements and reshaped freshman programs so that the individual students may have a continuous articulated educational experience on admission to the higher level of education.

Heartening as all these educational developments are, we wonder what will happen to these forward movements when the flood of students washes over all educational levels in the next ten years. Will we be so swamped by numbers that the growth and development of each individual student will be lost? Will mass testing programs and machine scoring operations, mass teaching techniques, and group guidance force us back into rigidity, back into the philosophy that what is good for the majority of students is American and democratic and, therefore, good for the individual student? Will public and private money expand in line with student population so that we will have the funds we need to continue our present gains? These questions can be answered, these problems solved, if educators on all levels will continue to develop subject-matter articulation in such a manner that each individual student will be challenged to use his talents fully.

Testing. On all educational levels a sound program of tests encourages the proper measurement of an individual's progress. The continuous assessment of an individual's potential and achievement is essential to assure that he be guided and motivated toward realistic objectives wherein he can make his greatest contribution to himself and society. A knowledge and understanding of the value and meaning of test results should be a required part of any training program for teachers and administrators on all educational levels. Schools which lack a test program or personnel trained in test interpretation should be encouraged to introduce these as soon as possible.

Tests are an important instrument of assessment for college counselors and admission officers, but tests should never become a controlling factor in college admission. They must always be used with other criteria: i.e., marks, rank in class, interviews, and recommendation of school authorities. We should remind students that, like marks, test scores are a by-product of education, not a goal. We urge college counselors on both school and college levels to unite in efforts to promote a dignified and orderly program of tests and test interpretation so that, in the future, tests may take their intended place as an aid to education.

College Choice. The next decade will surely increase the problems students face in selecting a college and gaining admission to a college. In the past, a student with a sound record of achievement could usually choose the college he wanted to attend and then proceed to go there. The '60's will change all of this as each college becomes more selective. Most students will not be able to gain admission to the one college they most desire. This means that students must be encouraged to think of higher education in terms of blocks of colleges, any one of which offers an opportunity for good higher education. Students must begin to choose colleges in groups rather than a particular college.

In the area of college choice, school guidance personnel have four opportunities for special service to the individual. These are:

1. To help a student understand his own strengths and weaknesses, his capacities for intellectual work, his motivations, his vocational and education choices.
2. To help secondary school teachers understand the individual student.
3. To help college admission committees assess students. College admission committees will look to secondary school counselors more and more in the future for assistance in identifying underachievers and overachievers, early faders and late bloomers, and all the other varieties of students.
4. To help each student understand that his future welfare and success will not depend on the college in which he enrolls, but on what he does at the college.

One of the unfortunate situations which have emerged in the last few years is the stratification of colleges into three groups known by various labels, but often called good, average, or poor. Ironically, there is not a single "good" college that has not turned out graduates who failed in life, nor is there a single "poor" college which has not turned out successful men and women. Facts like these can often be presented to secondary school students to reinforce the knowledge that they control their educational destiny regardless of which college they attend. It should be clear that there is no right or wrong college for each student. Instead there are many institutions which offer each youth an opportunity to use his talents as he wishes. In the future, good guidance for college choice will encourage students to select clusters of colleges rather than a single college.

These are not the only three problems in education which face us in the decade ahead. There are many others. Solutions are possible only if educators at all levels will test the meaning and the worth of their programs against the proposition that what is good for the individual student is good for all.

The Fund for the Advancement of Education and the *Saturday Review* have entered into an agreement for the publication of a monthly supplement on education to be sponsored by the Fund as an integral part of the *Saturday Review*, beginning with the issue of September 17, 1960. The purpose of the supplement is to focus public attention on the basic educational problems facing the American people today. The special section will seek to provide accurate, authoritative, and up-to-date information and analysis from kindergarten through the university. It will also evaluate criticisms of the schools and seek to clarify discussion of new developments that give promise of improving education.

It has long appeared to the Officers and Directors of the Fund and the editors of the *Saturday Review* that one of the barriers to constructive change has been a lack of public understanding both of the complexities in the American educational establishment and of the possibilities for greater education quality. Many professional journals of education are regularly published, but none of them reaches any substantial segment of the general public; few reach even any major proportion of America's teachers. In joining forces for the publication of this monthly supplement on education, the Fund and the *Saturday Review* hope to contribute both to clarity of understanding and a greater awareness of opportunities for improving the schools.

Saturday Review will share with the Fund responsibility for all material appearing in the supplement. This does not mean, however, that only those ideas will appear in the pages that coincide with the ideas of the Editorial Board. A genuine attempt will be made to reflect an intelligent diversity in the great emerging debate on American education.

Dr. Ewald B. Nyquist, Deputy Commissioner of Education of New York State, spoke at the commencement exercises of Yeshiva University last June and made a few remarks worth preserving:

"Too often, I am afraid, our institutions of higher learning and their chief executive officers are characterized, if one may paraphrase slightly part of the Biblical injunction, 'by the bland leading the bland. . . .'

"There are three distinctive benchmarks of a superior institution. The first of these is a clear concept among the Trustees, staff members, and faculty of a college of what its purposes and objectives are, where it is in achieving them, and where it is going in the future. Too few colleges have this concept, and if the colleges do not, how can we impress the public with our need for financial support?

"The second vital benchmark of a good university is 'an habitual vision of greatness,' as Whitehead the philosopher has said. Jacques Barzun of Columbia has put it equally as well: 'Excellence must be a familiar spirit.'

"But the third and final benchmark of a distinguished institution is that it must be continually in need of money. No college that I know of has ever achieved perfection. The fact that no college can ever achieve perfection comments not so much on human fallibility but reflects rather on two other factors: First, that no absolute standards for excellence have ever been set for educational performance (this is another way of saying that excellence has no ceiling) and second, the phenomenon that no good institution ever has enough resources. It always needs more financial support to do better than for which it exists."

The Center of the Study of Higher Education at the University of Michigan, with funds provided by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, has announced that additional fellowships will be available for the academic year 1961-62.

On a postdoctoral basis, the Michigan Fellowships in College Administration, five in number, will be granted to persons newly entered upon or planning to make college or university administration a career. The applicants must be under 40 years of age, have substantial academic records, and be recommended as having high potential for a career in administration. The doctorate may be from any academic or professional field. The stipends are intended to cover living and incidental expenses, subject to maximum grants of \$8000. The fellows devote the academic year to study, research, internships, and other experiences relevant to the administration of higher education. A few fellowships, bearing a maximum stipend of \$3500, are also available to persons under 40 who do not possess a doctor's degree. Both postdoctoral and predoctoral programs permit study in either junior or senior college or university administration.

During the two years in which the fellowship program has been available, ten persons have received appointments as Michigan Fellows in College Administration. Four of them, former professors of history and of zoology, are now deans of liberal arts colleges; one, who was a college dean, has become executive vice-president of a state university; one, a professor of psychology, became an assistant to a president; and four have returned to their own institutions, one as president, one as dean of students, and two in academic positions.

Applications should be presented on or before February 1, 1961. Requests for further information and for application forms should be addressed to: Algo D. Henderson, Director, Center for the Study of Higher Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Regional Associations

J. K. H.

COLORADO-WYOMING ACRAO

The Colorado-Wyoming Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers met at the United States Air Force Academy on Friday and Saturday, November 20 and 21, 1959. The program opened officially at noon with a luncheon address, "The Impact of Astronautics on Education," by Dr. Robert B. Parks, Manager, Advanced Planning Division, The Martin Company.

The afternoon program began with a discussion, "Back Then, Now, and 1984," moderated by Ralph E. McWhinnie, University of Wyoming. Participants were Stella Morris, Colorado State University; Charles H. Maruth, University of Denver; William V. Burger, Colorado School of Mines; and Thomas W. Ross, Colorado College.

The second major portion of the afternoon program was a divided session, in which one-half of the group met in a seminar conducted by David B. Muirhead of the University of Colorado and Lt. Col. William F. Long of USAF Academy, on the topic "Freshman Grade Prediction"; while the other half of the group participated in a panel discussion of "Problems and Practices," of which Major John N. Johnson of the USAF Academy was Chairman.

Dean William F. Adams, President of AACRAO, was the principal speaker at the banquet Friday evening. Saturday morning's business session consisted of reports from the following committees:

Committee on Population and College Enrollment Statistics—Enrollment figures for colleges and universities in the Colorado-Wyoming area.

Committee on High School-College Relations—Report on progress toward development of an adequate transcript guide for high schools in Colorado, and a revised uniform application for admission.

Committee on Professional Development and Ethics—A summary of the professional training of registrars and admissions officers in the Colorado-Wyoming area.

Committee on Standard Practices—A report on the previous day's discussion.

Committee on Constitution—Modifications of the Constitution of the organization.

Committee on Resolutions—The usual.

Nominating Committee. Officers nominated and elected for 1959-60 are as follows:

President: Marjorie M. Cutler, University of Denver, Denver, Colorado

Vice-President: H. Dean Burdick, Colorado School of Mines, Golden, Colorado

Secretary-Treasurer: Lowell Heiny, Mesa College, Grand Junction, Colorado

The Colorado-Wyoming Association will hold its next meeting at Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado, November 11-12, 1960.

FLORIDA ACRAO

The Florida Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers met at the Hillsboro Hotel, Tampa, Florida, on Wednesday, April 27, 1960. The meeting opened shortly after noon, with round table discussions on the general topic of "Problems of Registrars and Admissions Officers." The panel consisted of Jesse Barfield, Registrar, Pensacola Junior College; Harry N. Murphy, Registrar, Gulf Coast Community College; R. H. Whitehead, Associate Registrar, University of Florida; R. S. Wolfe, Registrar, Rollins College. Following this discussion A. F. Tuttle, Director of Admissions, Stetson University, presented a report on his institution's early admissions and college skills program.

The evening session was addressed by Dean William F. Adams, 1959-60 President of AACRAO. Officers elected for 1960-61 are:

President: Roland Lewis, Florida Christian College, Tampa

Vice-President: Dixie Rupp, Jacksonville University, Jacksonville

Secretary-Treasurer: Barbara Rowe, Stetson University, DeLand

The 1961 meeting will be held at Miami Beach on April 21, 1961, immediately following the national meeting of AACRAO.

GEORGIA ACRAO

The Georgia Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers met in Atlanta on Thursday morning, March 17, 1960. The program opened with a panel discussion on admissions, with the following participants: W. L. Carmichael, Georgia Institute of Technology, Chairman; Laura Steele, Agnes Scott College; Walter N. Danner, University of Georgia; and Gerald Robins, Augusta College. Following the panel discussion, Dean William F. Adams, President of AACRAO, addressed the group on the topic of "Chore or Challenge." The Nominating Committee presented the following slate of officers for election for the coming year:

President: Will D. Young, North Georgia College, Dahlonega

Vice-President: G. D. Wilson, Berry College, Mount Berry

Secretary: Mrs. Mary L. Livengood, Columbus College, Columbus
The next meeting of the Georgia Association will be held in Atlanta on Thursday morning, March 23, 1961.

MICHIGAN ACRAO

The Michigan Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers met at Alma College on Friday, November 13, 1959. The program opened with a symposium: "The Superior and Talented Student." The topic was discussed by Clyde Vroman, University of Michigan, Chairman of the NCA College and Secondary School Project on Guidance and Motivation of Superior and Talented Students, and by Edward G. Rose, Principal, Marshall High School, Marshall, Michigan.

Reports were heard from the following committees:

William Slaby presented a report on the workshop for admissions officers, counselors, registrars, and their office staffs, held October 8 and 9. This workshop was conducted under the auspices of the special projects committee of MACRAO, and was designed specifically to provide an opportunity for the clerical staffs of registrars and admissions officers in the state of Michigan to discuss problems and procedures in the areas of admissions, records, and registration. The workshop took place at St. Mary's MEA Camp, Battle Creek, Michigan, and extended over two full days. Subgroups were formed by size of institution, and according to primary interests, whether in admissions, records, or registration. Reports of those attending reveal that this type of workshop, for the people who actually do the work in our offices, was of considerable value. Other regional associations might very well consider this suggestion as a possible professional activity.

Clayton Maus reported on the work of the Joint Committee on Secondary School-College Relations.

Gayle Wilson reported on the Pittsburgh meeting of AACRAO.

Edward Groesbeck presented the report of the Enrollment Statistics Committee, revealing enrollment figures for all Michigan institutions.

Keith Smith presented a report of the Special Projects Committee, mentioning the following projects under way:

1. Research Methods and Publication
Byron Groesbeck, University of Michigan
2. Two-year-Four-year College Articulation
Edward Bush, Port Huron Junior College
3. Problems of the Smaller Colleges
Florence Krieter, Hillsdale College
4. Annual Workshop
Paul Andrews, Wayne University

The following officers were elected for the coming year:

President: Everett Marshall, Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti

Vice-President: Ray Bechtold, General Motors Institute, Flint

Secretary (two years): Lyle Leisenring, Michigan State University, East Lansing

The next meeting of the Michigan Association will be held at Hillsdale College, Hillsdale on November 11, 1960.

MISSISSIPPI ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

The Mississippi Association met at Jackson, Mississippi on Wednesday evening, March 23, for its annual meeting. The program consisted of informal discussion of topics of interest in the areas of registration and admissions. Officers elected for the coming year are:

President: Thermon Bryant, Clarke Memorial College, Newton

Vice-President: Murray Kenna, Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg

Secretary-Treasurer: Mildred Herrin, Hinds Junior College, Raymond

The next meeting of the Mississippi Association will be held on March 22, 1961 in the Jackson Room of the Robert E. Lee Hotel in Jackson.

NEBRASKA ACRAO

The spring meeting of the Nebraska Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers was held on Friday, May 6, 1960 at Concordia College, Seward, Nebraska. Jack Williams of Creighton University discussed the American College Testing Program, following which each Nebraska college representative present reported its present position in the area of state-wide testing.

Floyd Hoover of the University of Nebraska gave a report of the College-High School Relations Committee.

The afternoon session was taken up primarily with matters of business. The following were elected as officers for 1960-61:

President: J. H. Horner, Nebraska State Teachers College, Kearney

President-Elect: Ralph Ritzen, Midland College, Fremont

Secretary-Treasurer: Alice C. Smith, University of Omaha, Omaha

The next meeting of the Nebraska Association will be held on October 7, 1960 at the University of Omaha.

ASSOCIATION OF OHIO COLLEGE REGISTRARS

The 1959 meeting of the Association of Ohio College Registrars was held at Ohio University, Athens, Ohio, October 14, 15, and 16. Dr. Robert L. Jones, Chairman of the Department of History, Marietta Col-

lege, gave an address, "The Significance of Southeastern Ohio in History"; and L. C. Underwood, Hiram College, reported on the history of the Ohio College Registrars Association.

Allen C. Ingraham of Ohio Wesleyan University was chairman of a panel discussion on "Special Problems Confronting the Registrar." Panel members, and the areas discussed by each are as follows:

Harold S. Clarke, Ashland College—Use of machines in record keeping.
Donald R. Fitch, Denison University—Prediction of future enrollment in colleges and universities.

Garland Parker, University of Cincinnati—Effective utilization of space.

Mr. Ingraham as Chairman reported on a study of salaries of Ohio college registrars.

At the annual dinner, Thursday night, the principal address was given by the Reverend Henry F. Birkenhauer of John Carroll University, on the topic "Antarctica." Music was furnished by the Ohio University Graduate String Quartet.

On Friday morning, Robert E. Mahn, Ohio University, representing AACRAO, presented a report on the Basic Data and Definitions Project of AACRAO, the objectives of this project and progress to date.

Officers elected for the coming year are as follows:

President: Robert W. Tripp, Mount Union College, Alliance

Vice-President: Brother Joseph Mervar, University of Dayton, Dayton

Secretary-Treasurer: C. Lucille Christman, Heidelberg College, Tiffin

The next meeting of the Ohio Association will be held at the University of Toledo in October of 1960.

OKLAHOMA ACRAO

The annual meeting of the Oklahoma Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers was held at the Student Union Building on the Southwestern State College campus in Weatherford, Oklahoma, on March 25, 1960. Informal discussion took place concerning the American College Testing Program, and the desirability of establishing a program of selective admission in Oklahoma colleges.

President Burton of Southwestern State College spoke at the luncheon meeting on "The Role and Importance of Admissions Officers."

The afternoon session was devoted to informal discussion of permanent records, transcripts, enrollment, withdrawals, drops and evaluations, degree checks, uniform calendar, transfers, and foreign students. Officers elected for 1960-61 are:

President: Truman Wester, Central State College, Edmond

Vice-President: Donald T. King, Oklahoma City University, Oklahoma City

Secretary: R. S. North, Oklahoma Christian College, Oklahoma City
The time and place of the next meeting will be determined later.

UTAH ACRAO

The Utah Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers met on the campus of the University of Utah at Salt Lake City on October 16 and 17, 1959. The Friday afternoon program consisted of reports of the AACRAO Pittsburgh meeting, and plans for the Los Angeles meeting, together with a discussion of institutional research, by L. Howard Campbell of the University of Utah.

Dean Alma P. Burton of Brigham Young University was the featured speaker at the Friday evening dinner. The Saturday morning program consisted of a discussion of the American College Testing Program by O. W. Hascall, formerly of the University of Colorado, and a review of the Utah uniform application form.

The following officers were elected for the coming year:

President: Ward S. Robb, College of Southern Utah, Cedar City

Vice-President: Allen W. Bosch, Westminster College, Salt Lake City

Secretary-Treasurer: J. A. Norton, University of Utah, Salt Lake City

The 1960 meeting will be held November 4 and 5 at the College of Southern Utah, Cedar City.

WEST VIRGINIA ACRAO

The West Virginia Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers met at Mont Chateau Lodge at Morgantown, West Virginia, on October 14, 15, and 16, 1959. The speaker for the Wednesday evening meeting was President Elvis J. Stahr, Jr. of West Virginia University.

The Thursday morning program consisted of a discussion of national defense loans by Verl W. Snyder, Coordinator of the Federal Aid Program for West Virginia; a discussion of current projects of the Association of Academic Deans, by Dean Harry G. Straley of Morris Harvey College; followed by informal discussion, with the group organized by state supported institutions and church and private colleges.

Charles E. Harrell, Registrar at Indiana University, President-Elect of AACRAO, was the the principal speaker at the banquet Thursday night.

The Friday morning meeting opened with a question box, followed by a discussion of college days, led by Stanley R. Harris, and a discussion of testing programs, by Luther E. Bledsoe and C. D. Brown. The remainder of the morning's program was given over to a business session.

Officers elected for the coming year are:

President: E. L. Jones, West Virginia University, Morgantown

President-Elect: Brown Trussler, Glenville State College, Glenville

Secretary-Treasurer: Miss Elizabeth Millard, Davis and Elkins College, Elkins

The next meeting of the West Virginia Association was due to be held in Charleston, March 14 and 15, 1960 and the fall meeting will be at Oglebay Park, Wheeling, West Virginia, October 19, 20, and 21.

Since the Treasurer's Report was not available at the time this issue went to press, it must appear in a later number.

Placement Service

AACRAO maintains a Placement Service, which serves as a clearing house for those seeking employment and those with vacancies to fill. The service is under the direction of Oliver Wagner, Washington University, St. Louis 5, Missouri. There is no charge for listing.

There is a fee of \$3.00, however, for those who wish to publish a notice on this page. They should send with their application for listing, copy for the advertisement (limited to 50 words) which they wish to insert. For insertions beyond the first, the charge is \$1.00 an issue. Remittance in full in favor of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers should accompany the application.

Correspondence, applications for listing, and inquiries about advertisements should be directed to Mr. Wagner. Requisitions and purchase orders should be directed to the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, in care of Mr. Wagner.

Neither the Association nor its Committee is an employment agency, and neither assumes any obligations as to qualifications of prospective employees or responsibility of employers. It is expected that at least some reply will be made to all those answering advertisements.

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